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Perceptions of the training needs of law enforcement officers

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PERCEPTIONS OF THE TRAINING NEEDS OF

LAW ENFORCEMENT OFFICERS

by

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ABSTRACT

Perceptions of the Training Needs of Law Enforcement Officers

by

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The rules of law enforcement are constantly evolving and the criminal community persists in developing new and innovative ways to circumvent the efforts of the police. Revolutionary advances in police equipment design and a sociological awakening has created an intense scrutiny of the way police officers conduct their affairs. Law enforcement officers require continuing training to meet these social demands and to keep up with technological advances, the ever–changing laws, and critical developments in the criminal world.

Because high profile civil rights cases have involved devastating monetary judgments against the agencies involved, police administrators across the country have established training programs for their officers hoping to avoid similar catastrophes. Departmental leaders understand that quality training can be quite effective in reducing liability and they frequently direct their staff to give a high priority to training that is geared toward reducing potential risks.

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Police officers on the street are aware of these liability issues but are commonly dissatisfied with departmental offerings in the way of training. They feel additional concerns for personal safety and job enrichment, and frequently seek training on their own time and at their own expense.

Most states require the agencies to keep the officers abreast of developments in their field of work. State codes normally list the subject areas that must be covered by basic academy training as well as in-service programs.

The question of which topics should be the focus of such training usually calls for training needs assessment, based on data collected from practitioners according to their perceptions of the job. However, since administrators make the final decisions regarding the direction of their agencies, training is typically formed according to their wishes, addressing liability issues in spite of recommendations from department training personnel. This can leave the program wanting for those topics that officers may feel are important to enhance their job performance or to maximize their personal safety. Only recently have agencies begun to proactively develop training strategies based on in-depth training needs assessment.

This study investigated the difference in the perceived need for training between top administrators, training officers, and patrol officers in the Southern Nevada community. The data obtained provides valuable assistance for administrators and their staff in creating more effective and efficient training programs.

The data were collected by on-line survey. Top administrators, training officers, and patrol officers of the various law enforcement agencies in the Southern Nevada area were invited to participate in the survey to gather pertinent information regarding the

participants' own perceptions about police training needs. The responses were evaluated

by frequency distribution and chi-square goodness of fit test to determine whether or not

a statistically significant difference exists between the perceptions of the administrators,

training officers, and patrol officers.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Organized policing can be traced to the very early 1800s when society began to explore concepts and methods of policing in an attempt to improve the quality of life (Fry, 1975). It wasn't until 1935 that the National Academy of the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) was established to support, promote, and enhance the personal and professional development of law enforcement leaders and managers of state and local police, sheriffs' departments, military police organizations, and federal law enforcement agencies (Gammage, 1963). The first organized attempt by the federal government to coordinate and ensure training for all new federal police officers did not happen until 1970 when the Federal Law Enforcement Training Center was established in Glynco, Georgia (Charles, 2000). Prior to that, most federal, state, and local law enforcement agencies provided neither basic nor in-service training. Those who did provide training offered it "on-the-job" and in a disjointed and inconsistent manner. For a considerable period of time, formal training for police officers in the United States was scarce, statewide standards were non-existent, and basic police training consisted of handing the newly hired officer a badge and a gun and putting him out on patrol to learn on his own (Charles, 2000).

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Similarly, organized training for police officers in Southern Nevada is a relatively new concept. While Nevada gained statehood on October 31, 1864 (Elliott, 1989), it was not until 1965 that the Nevada State Legislature created the Commission on Peace Officers' Standards and Training (POST). Establishing a base level of competence for state and local law enforcement officers, the POST Commission adopted rules that set minimum standards relating to physical, mental, and moral fitness, to guide the process of recruitment for a city, county or state agency employing peace officers (Nevada Peace Officers Standards and Training [Nevada POST], n.d.). Initially, POST required peace officers to have 72 hours of basic training – the lowest requirement in all of the United States. Then, in a 1987 move toward organizational improvements, POST increased the basic training requirement to 480 hours, instituted an annual 24-hour continuing education requirement for all peace officers, and classified officers into three categories: Category I generally encompassed all law enforcement duties; Category II for specialized limited law enforcement duties; and Category III for correction and confinement specialists (Nevada POST, n.d.).

Shortly after the establishment of Nevada POST, law enforcement agencies throughout the State began sending newly hired officers to basic training at various POST certified academies. For instance, Nevada Highway Patrol established a basic training academy for new officers at a facility in Carson City while the Department of Motor Vehicles, the Department of Public Safety, the Gaming Control Board, and other State and local agencies trained at a different academy, formed by POST, also in Carson City. And in the southern part of the state, the Clark County Sheriff's Department created its own training academy. Departments that created their own academies realized a

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considerable cost savings because of the prohibitive expense involved with sending officers to the northern part of the state for an extended period of time (Nevada POST, n.d.). Clark County's police academy complied with standards set forth in the Nevada Revised Statutes (Chapter 289.320) and was awarded certification from POST (Las Vegas Metropolitan Police Department, 1983). It provided basic academy training for Clark County officers and allowed participation by officers from other southern region jurisdictions (Henderson Police Department, in press).

The basic academy is hardly the end of the training road. Like the professions of nursing (Dato, Fertman, Pistella, & Potter, 2000), psychiatry (Dunn & Blake, 2003), welfare (Denning & Verschelden, 1993), carpentry (Gamble, 2001), and insurance sales (Fan, 2004), the skills and concepts learned in basic police training are perishable or continually changing, so training must be an on-going process throughout an officer's career to keep skills fresh and inform him or her of new developments in the profession. This process of continuing education is typically called "in-service training" in the police profession (Charles, 2000).

In Nevada, in-service training is normally provided on-site at the various agencies instead of some central location like an academy. For example, during a nine-month assignment with the Las Vegas Metropolitan Police Department (LVMPD) Basic Academy, the author learned that LVMPD created two physically separate entities for training: the Basic Academy which was located on a campus dedicated solely to the training of new recruits, and the Training Bureau, a facility incorporated into the structure of the Southeast substation, for in-service training of veteran officers. Through interaction with other agencies in the valley, the author learned that the Henderson,

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Boulder City, and North Las Vegas Police Departments also provided in-service training for officers within the confines of respective main stations.

In Southern Nevada, officers with the Nevada Gaming Commission, the Nevada Highway Patrol, the Las Vegas Metropolitan Police Department, the North Las Vegas Police Department, and the Henderson Police Department deal on a daily basis with situations unique to the community by virtue of the gaming related tourist attractions prevalent in the area (Mustard & Grinols, 2004). Analysis of the training needs of officers in Nevada promises to expand on perspectives already revealed in other parts of the country (Payne, 1984; Miller, 1994; Allen, 2002). Specifically, this study will provide data from the distinctive venue of a tourist/gaming community, building on similar work done in rural Oklahoma by William Miller in 1994 and in Mississippi by Julian Allen in 2003.

Statement of the Problem

Because senior administrators of law enforcement agencies are ultimately responsible for the activities of their departments, they tend to focus on planning and fiscal matters, administrative and political concerns, and disciplinary problems. The business aspect of the department demands the majority of their time and they are seldom aware of the rigors of life on the streets. And, since the time they were officers on patrol, policing philosophies and leadership concepts have changed (Birzer, 1999).

But the profession of law enforcement is also changing, placing greater demands on those who serve in it and requiring new training to keep pace. Litigation in the past 20 years has created challenging conditions for today's street officer. Tennessee v. Garner

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(1985) and Graham v. Conner (1989), both landmark cases involving police use of excessive force, produced admonitions from the courts to provide training for officers and large monetary judgments against the agencies for not doing so. Excessive force lawsuits like these consistently make front-page news stories, necessitating attention to the analysis of use of force incidents (Peters & Brave, 1993). Canton v. Harris (1989), a landmark use of force ruling that dealt specifically with training issues, had a profound effect on how administrators view the training function.

Laws are frequently changed, requiring police officers to participate in continuing education programs. For example, new drug laws like Nevada Revised Statute 453.336, California Health and Safety Code Section 11362.5, Alaska Statute 17.35.030, Section 14 of Article XVIII of the Colorado State Constitution, and similar legislative action in Hawaii, Maine, Oregon, Vermont, and Washington (National Organization for the Reform of Marijuana Laws [NORML], 2004) created turmoil for drug enforcement officers by legalizing the use of marijuana for medical reasons. It became difficult to convict for possession of marijuana when it was legal for other segments of the population to have it.

A police officer's equipment has improved in recent years, bringing more complicated and technical apparatus into play. For many administrators, revolvers, saps, nightsticks, and call boxes were the norm. Today, semi-automatic firearms, collapsible batons, hinged handcuffs, and car-mounted computers are part of an officer's repertoire, all of which exacerbate the problem by requiring training far beyond that which most of the administrators experienced when they were officers on the streets. Thus, those administrators may be reluctant to approve such advanced training (Peters & Brave,

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1993).

The adoption of semi-automatic firearms and the glut of new features that make them safer and more reliable also make them more difficult to use (Marion, 1998). Anti-lock brakes and air bags are two of the recent improvements in vehicular construction that seriously effect the aggressive operation of police vehicles (Bondurant & Sanow, 2000). Recent terrorist threats to national security have put a greater demand on local law enforcement (Bush, 2003). Psychological advances provide tools to cope with police stress, a major contributor in police officer suicides (Adams, McTernan, & Remsberg, 1980). Domestic violence incidents kill more officers than any other incident and successful resolution of these situations demands sharp skills in crisis intervention and officer survival (Remsberg, 1985; U. S. Department of Justice, 2006). New methods of detecting deception and gathering evidence have changed the face of criminal investigation and criminal law (Bennett & Hess, 2003). Advances in medicine dictate new techniques for first aid and CPR (American Red Cross [ARC], 2001). New, more complicated and much more perishable skills are required to master these innovations, necessitating new and more frequent training.

This study sought an answer to the question: "In what ways do top police administrators, training officers, and patrol officers of the law enforcement community in the Southern Nevada area differ in their perceptions of training needs for patrol officers?"

Purpose of the Study

This study identified and then analyzed the perceived training needs of law enforcement personnel as reported by patrol officers, training officers, and top police

administrators of Southern Nevada. The ultimate goal of the study was to identify any inconsistencies or disconnects between top administrators' perceptions of police training needs, the training officers' perceptions of police training needs, and those needs as perceived by the officers for whom the training is designed.

The following are the specific purposes of this study:

1.a. To determine the training needs of law enforcement officers as perceived by patrol officers in Southern Nevada.

1.b. To determine the training needs of patrol officers as perceived by top law enforcement administrators in Southern Nevada .

1.c. To determine the training needs of patrol officers as perceived by training officers in Southern Nevada.

2. To determine if inconsistencies in perceptions of training needs of patrol officers exist between top administrators, training officers, and patrol officers of Southern Nevada.

Research Design and Methodology

A questionnaire was used to gather data. It was designed to account for current issues in law enforcement training, as well as for concerns specific to officers serving in Southern Nevada. The instrument was accessed on the Internet by each administrator, the training officers, and patrol officers from Boulder City Police Department, Henderson Police Department, Las Vegas Metropolitan Police Department, and the Nye County Sheriff's Office. Participation was solicited from the Clark County Park Police, Lincoln County Sheriff's Office, the Mesquite Police Department, the North Las Vegas Police Department, and the University of Nevada, Las Vegas, Police Department, but these

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agencies declined to take part. Agencies that provide only specialized services such as Nevada Highway Patrol, Nevada Gaming Control, Clark County School District Police, and others were not solicited due to the limited experiences and duties of the officers employed therein. The data collected were subjected to analysis by frequency distribution and chi-square goodness of fit test.

Justification for the Study

As Payne (1984) pointed out, the great strides in training that occurred over the ten years prior to his research had caused a credibility gap between the younger, more sophisticated officer and the sheriff or chief of police who had not changed with the times. Officers already in leadership positions had advanced through the ranks without the benefit of training standards or exposure to the more innovative training that the younger officers received. Twenty years later, even greater strides have been made in training, and the administrators of today still struggle with setting the priorities for the training of their patrol officers (Allen, 2002).

As the new century begins, law enforcement finds itself in the midst of exciting, though complex, change. Overall crime rates have experienced a significant drop in the last ten years (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2004). The hugely successful community oriented policing philosophy, adopted by agencies nationwide, continues to drive fundamental change (Allen, 2002). According to Birzer (1999), some police scholars have asserted that as practitioners move from reactive to proactive policing styles, issues that relate to training and performance become more important and administrators must address a myriad of issues in addition to training, such as decentralization, empowerment,

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leadership, recruitment and selection, organizational restructuring, and problem solving. The bottom line is that many theories of policing are different today from those of 20 years ago. Thus, the question arose as to whether or not today's chiefs and sheriffs are as attuned to the modern concepts of policing as the younger officers (Birzer, 1999).

In a survey conducted by Kaminsky & Martin (2000), it was revealed that officers at a large West Coast municipal police department were dissatisfied with the mandatory defense and control tactics training program being presented. Officers claimed that the techniques they learned did not work on the street, and requested more comprehensive and effective training. Researchers in the United Kingdom conducted an evaluation of training courses, focusing on specific training requests made by patrol officers, and discovered that that technique provided comprehensive information that could be used to match trainees with instructional courses (Jones, 1999). These studies suggest that the officers can provide useful information when assessing the effectiveness of existing training programs. Conversely, Buerger (1998) found that when officers are directed to attend training courses specified by departmental administrators for the purpose of instituting reform or discipline, the effort was often ineffective.

Therefore, the possibility exists that the perceptions about training needs of police patrol officers may differ between the patrol officers, the training officers, and the top administrators.

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Hypotheses

This study tested the following hypotheses:

H_0: There is no difference between top law enforcement administrators, training officers, and patrol officers in Southern Nevada regarding their perceptions of the training needs of patrol officers.

H_1: There is a difference between top law enforcement administrators, training officers, and patrol officers in Southern Nevada regarding their perceptions of the training needs of patrol officers and the difference is significant.

To determine which hypothesis is true, the differences between the groups were transformed into useful quantities by assigning values to questionnaire responses. Because this study investigated the differences between three groups of substantially unequal sizes (top law enforcement administrators, training officers, and patrol officers), a frequency distribution was performed on each group separately using statistical software program SPSS 14.0 for Windows and the results were compared as descriptive statistics. They were then analyzed with a Chi-square goodness of fit test to compare the observed values of the dependent variables with the expected values. A probability of .05 was used to control for a Type I error, which is rejecting H_0, the null hypothesis, when it is, in fact, true.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions are provided as they relate to this study:

Law Enforcement Officer. A commissioned peace officer employed in a public, municipal, or county police agency on a full-time basis and charged with enforcing the law.

Law Enforcement Training. Field and/or classroom education and training provided to police and other law enforcement officers as prescribed by the State of Nevada Commission on Peace Officers Standards and Training.

Patrol Officer. A commissioned law enforcement officer whose duties include uniformed patrol and criminal investigation, making him or her the initial responder to crime scenes and most citizen initiated complaints.

Top Police Administrator. The Chief of Police, Sheriff, or other director of an agency holding ultimate authority in policy formulation and enforcement and the hiring and firing of personnel.

Training Officer. A commissioned law enforcement officer or civilian employee of a law enforcement agency whose duties include developing curriculum, presenting training courses, and tending to the everyday functions of the agency's training program.

Limitations and Assumptions

Limitations to this study include:

1. Only state and local law enforcement agencies in the metropolitan tourist/gaming communities of Southern Nevada are included in the study. No federal agencies were involved.

2. Top police administrators, training officers, and patrol officers are the only population groups investigated.

3. Lack of generalizability beyond the metropolitan tourist/gaming community.

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Assumptions of the study include:

1. Respondents provided truthful, candid responses.

Risks and Benefits

Risks to participants in this study are minimal. The survey instrument presents no physical inconvenience except for the time involved to complete it. Psychological implications are also minimal for two reasons: (1) the subject matter of the questions relate to normal, routine business of the day for the participants and should not create any uneasiness; and (2) because the survey is being accessed by all patrol officers in a department, anonymity will protect participants from any perceived possibility of repercussions from superiors.

The participants benefit from this project in three ways: (1) they have been given the opportunity to provide input into improvements in their respective agencies' training programs; (2) they have been given the opportunity to provide input into improvements in statewide training programs; (3) their responses may provide impetus for positive change in training standards for all Nevada law enforcement officers.

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CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The history of humanity is peppered by man's struggle to control liabilities while maximizing the benefits of social living. Much of that control is informal, initiated with a frown, a negative word, or a chilly response toward some undesirable behavior. As misbehaviors worsen, the consequences of being the person providing the sanctions become more serious as well. For example, disciplining a child in a supermarket or speaking up when someone cuts in line at the airport hold considerably less hazard than intervening in a bank robbery or a domestic dispute. Dealing effectively with the more difficult situations has been a constant challenge for mankind.

Though the Biblical record shows evidence of judicial systems and enforcement procedures as early as 2000 B.C. (I Kings 4:1-6, King James Version), modern day policing stems from early tenth century England when the people of the communities took an active role in enforcing the laws of the land. Each citizen was made responsible for aiding neighbors who were victimized by outlaws in a relatively informal voluntary model for policing villages known as the "kin police" (Astor, 1971).

In the American colonies, the villages formed in the seventeenth century included provisions for night watches and constables in articles of incorporation. Their duties included keeping the peace, ensuring public safety, and enforcing the law. As rural

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counties formed, governors often appointed sheriffs whose duties were modeled after those of their English counterparts (Vila & Morris, 1999).

Constables, often local tradesmen or craftsmen, were officials elected to maintain order, supervise the night watch, and provide protection from criminals during the day. They were not trained for the job in any way, nor were they paid for their services. As a result, their businesses typically suffered. This was compounded by the fact that their jobs were often unpleasant or dangerous, suffering assaults when trying to make arrests, just like their contemporary counterparts. As the colonies grew, the need for constables also grew. However, the hazardous, low pay, low status conditions were hardly attractive, so the positions were often taken by people of low character who used the jobs to advance personal interests and line their own pockets. This only served to further lower the status of the constable's position and weaken his authority in the eyes of the colonists (Greenberg, 1976).

These early enforcers of the law learned their jobs by "trial and error." Eventually, they looked to help from social scientists, psychologists, and attorneys for training to improve job performance (Gammage, 1963).

History only hints at training issues for the law enforcement community in Colonial America. Nonetheless, it is evident that there was an awareness of a need to provide at least basic instruction for those who chose to perform the services of the police. For instance, in an effort to rally public support for the office of constable, Nicholas Boone of Colonial Boston, himself a former constable, published *The Constable's Pocket-Book* (1710). Written as a dialogue between an old and a new constable, it was a how-to

manual designed to help incoming constables understand the demands of the office and

illustrates the need for training of those new to the profession:

Old Constable.

Good Morrow Sir, I hear you have an Office this Town-Meeting.

New Constable.

Yes, Sir, and I am afraid a very trouble-some One.

O. C. You must not mind the trouble; but consider the Publick Interest, and that

everyone ought to Serve his Generation.

N. C. On these thoughts, I have taken the Oath, and hope to do my Duty; and

therefore desire you to inform me, How I ought to manage this trust for the Publick

good, and my own safety.

O. C. Your Oath lays out your Work, chiefly, and therefore we'll begin with that; and

so proceed from step to step with the rest (p. 14).

Benjamin Franklin, in his *Memoirs,* commented on the poor state of the constabulary

in 1737 Philadelphia. An advocate of training for the constables, he called for regulation

of the office and proposed a property-based tax for "a proper and efficient night watch."

As a result, Philadelphia initiated a municipal police force by adopting a provincial law

calling for properly equipping and educating those hired to enforce the laws and therefore

creating a "sufficient" watch (Bridenbaugh, 1938, p 215).

The Training of Police in America

Expansion west of the Mississippi exposed the challenges presented by the enormous

distances and economic possibilities of the environment, producing a need for self-

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reliance among certain groups. The railroad and livestock industries formed private police forces. Citizens in the lesser developed areas formed vigilante groups while others formed territory-wide police forces like the Texas Rangers (Prassel, 1972).

The office of U.S. Marshal—the first federal law enforcement agency in the country—was established by the federal Judiciary Act of 1789 (Regoli & Hewitt, 1996) and given the same powers as sheriffs in executing the laws of the United States (Ball, 1978). A similar role fell to the Indian police forces that were initially placed under strict control of the U.S. Military. Demonstrating the value of an effective training program, reservation agents conclusively demonstrated that properly trained Indian police officers could effectively maintain order, ultimately gaining for the reservations freedom from military interference, (Hagan, 1966).

In urban America, people such as Charles Christian, publisher of an anonymous pamphlet in 1812 advocating a new role for New York police, began to argue for full-time police systems that would act as deterrents to crime rather than just deal with crime after the fact (Richardson, 1970). Similar movements sprung up in America's larger and more disorderly cities. These cities established programs that were modeled after England's Metropolitan Police Act of 1829, which created the first police force in the world whose primary duty was to prevent crime by constant patrol rather than only apprehending violators. This expanded mission required extraordinary skills that were learned informally from personal experience and the experiences of others (Miller, 1977).

In 1845 New York became the first American city to establish a fully consolidated police force. The London model of highly visible, well-coordinated and pervasive patrols was adopted to manage the unwelcome side effects of rampant urban growth. In less than

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fifteen years New York's modification of the London model had become the standard for all major U.S. cities (Vila & Morris, 1999).

It was not long before the need for formal training for police officers was evident. In 1887, retired New York police superintendent George W. Walling advocated broadening police education in his *Recollections of a New York Chief of Police* (1887). Walling suggested changing the demeanor and appearance of the police to improve the public perception of them. He advocated that officers should be role models for their communities, not limited to enforcing the law and preserving the public peace. He described a School of Deportment in which officers would learn decorum and how to wear the uniform. He discussed officers who, due to "such a fine pitch of mental equilibrium," (p. 56) might be able to convert criminals to righteous behavior with their words and actions and stressed the need for a system to teach them these skills (1887).

At about the same time, George M. Roe penned *Our police: A history of the Cincinnati police force, from the earliest period until the present day* (1890) in which he advocated a physically and mentally fit Cincinnati police force and, like Walling, emphasized the necessity of training the officers to meet that vision. He stated in the preface to his book:

> [A] model Cincinnati police officer must…be a perfect specimen of physical manhood, able to pass a physical examination more exacting than that required of a West Point cadet; as symmetrical as an Apollo, as strong as a Hercules, as enduring as iron. He must have a knowledge of the English language sufficient to make his written reports intelligible, and be well enough versed in criminal and municipal laws

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to avoid making any mistakes in prosecuting his duties both for the discovery and prevention of nuisances, of misdemeanors, of crime (p. ix).

Allan Pinkerton (1867) founded a private railroad agency called the North West Police Agency, and Pinkerton's Protective Police Patrol – a division of uniformed guards hired out to watch over banks, offices, stores, and other businesses at night. He wrote a manual for his agents in which he outlined what he believed to be the fundamental principles of private law enforcement. In that manual, Pinkerton advocates continuing education for his detectives: "...but the Detective should ever study to improve his faculty, to mould himself, as much as possible, to the habits of those with whom he may be brought in contact, whilst engaged in the detection of Crime..." (p. 9)

Calling for uniformity among the cities and states of the nation, William Seavey (1895) presented an address where he discussed the benefits of similarities among the agencies in governing, disciplining, and training of the men and women employed. He said: "If all the police of this country were appointed, governed, disciplined, uniformed and drilled the same, America would have a formidable army at a moment's notice for any kind of service." (p. 165)

The importance of training cannot be overstated if our communities expect to have quality police officers. From the earliest days of American history, social commentators recognized that training for police officers was not a luxury but a necessity.

Twentieth Century Police Training

To avoid legal, departmental, and civil difficulties, police officers must be trained before they enter the profession and then continuously throughout their careers. Even in the private sector, companies are offering employees training to avoid lawsuits. In efforts

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to fend off legal claims, employers are showing evidence that employees were properly trained, and that training techniques were properly applied. Like police, private employers are experiencing penalties for wrongdoings in the workplace. Courts are mandating that they develop and implement training programs in addition to monetary awards ("Training," 1998).

In 1978 A. W. Rainey studied the relationship of police officers' duties and needed training, listing three distinct rationales for educationally upgrading America's police. He claimed that with training:

- Officers will be more effective in performing their crime control function through better motivation and greater ability to apply systems and technology.

- Officers will be better able to perform their "order maintenance" functions, through more balanced use of social counseling and law enforcement techniques.

- Officers will understand the proper exercise of police discretionary power (pp. 49-50)

In a study related to training firefighters about the mentally ill, Belczak (2004) found a positive attitude change and unexpected benefits in the members of that population. This finding is consistent with Dunn and Blake's (2003) study which found that training can improve attitudes about working with the mentally ill.

Leaders like Arthur Woods (1919) helped develop a consensus about the need for better educated officers and stressed the importance of training for police officers, supervisors, and managers. Woods believed that specialized training was just as important for police sergeants, lieutenants, and other higher ranking officers as for new recruits and regular patrol officers, yet at the time there were no training programs

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designed to help prepare a patrolman for the new leadership duties associated with promotion to a higher rank.

The role of the police has gradually evolved from one that included such diverse duties as lamp lighting, election monitoring, and providing overnight lodging and food for the homeless, to a clear emphasis on crime control. Influential early twentieth century police executives nurtured the idea of professionalism and advocated novel policing strategies. Leading the way, the City of New York established the first police training school at the turn of the century. Berkeley, Philadelphia, Los Angeles, and New Orleans quickly followed suit and by 1940 every state except Wisconsin had a state police department with a training academy (Palmiotto, 2003).

Beginning with his appointment as director of the U.S. Department of Justice's Bureau of Investigation in 1924, J. Edgar Hoover set out to transform what would later become the Federal Bureau of Investigation into a model for professional law enforcement and establish himself as an advocate for improvements in education, training, and professional standards for law enforcement officers. Hoover eventually established the successful National Academy of the FBI, inviting leaders and managers of federal, state, and local law enforcement agencies to attend and enhance their professional development with college level courses directly related to law enforcement (Regoli & Hewitt, 1996).

August Vollmer, known as the father of modern professional policing in the United States was elected to the office of Town Marshal in Berkeley, California in 1905. Advocating higher education for police officers, Vollmer initiated a formal training

school for his deputies in 1908—the first to educate officers in scientific methods of crime detection (Deakin, 1988).

An important innovation of this era was the widespread development of firearms training. Even though American police were much more heavily armed than their English counterparts, there was almost no systematic firearms training for recruits, and even less evident was a continuing training program to maintain officers' skills. Recognizing the need, in 1921, the National Rifle Association (NRA) stepped in and adapted army pistol training programs to police use (Morrison & Vila, 1988).

In contrast to the images of patrol officers around which reform minded chiefs built their visions was a reality that remains to this day: police work is a blue-collar job. The ideal of highly trained and well-rounded college men and women who approached their jobs with polite demeanor and worthy virtue was a far cry from the grossly underpaid, poorly trained, and undereducated officers walking the streets. Their social peers were laborers who built and maintained the cities and the cars that began to crowd the streets, not the lawyers, accountants, bankers, and merchants who sat in offices. It would take another forty years before college-educated police officers became common. (Bopp & Schultz, 1972).

Answering the Call for Police Training

By the 1930s, the police profession had deteriorated to a dismal state. Despite the aspirations of progressive reformers, two-dozen crime commissions at the local, state, and national levels had found American police organizations sorely deficient. For example, the 1931 National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement (popularly called the Wickersham Commission) in its *Report on Lawlessness in Law*

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Enforcement found that police departments were generally inept, inefficient, and poorly run. Corruption and misconduct was widespread and training was almost non-existent. Fortunately, the Wickersham Commission did more than just condemn law enforcement. They provided a detailed set of guidelines that would serve as a map for police reform efforts and technological improvements. Over the next two generations it would guide the professionalization movement and, in time, the commission's ten specific recommendations would be adopted by most U.S. law enforcement agencies (National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, 1931).

A notable improvement in law enforcement during the 1930s was in the area of police training. Recommendations made by numerous police reformers began to be implemented on a wide scale. Many new state police forces typically established their own police training academies. The success and prevalence of these state training academies prompted local police departments to establish training programs of their own (Bopp & Schultz, 1972). However, the most prominent police training program was the National Academy, established by the Federal Bureau of Investigation in 1935 to provide extensive instruction to exceptional officers from municipal, county, and state law enforcement agencies nationwide (Bopp & Schultz, 1972; Fogleson, 1977).

From 1930 to 1950, many departments made progress toward the standards set by the Wickersham Commission. The selection and training of patrolmen improved, as did the tools available to them. These improvements solidified when O. W. Wilson, protégé of August Vollmer, published *Police Administration,* a textbook that clearly defined a "professional model" for police organizations. Wilson's concepts included administrative efficiency fostered by a semi-military hierarchy. He also advocated police

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integrity, education, and training. The book became required reading for officers aspiring to promotion (Vila & Morris, 1999).

Within a relatively short period of time, Wilson's philosophy spread to departments across the country. The Los Angeles Police Department, led by Wilson's protégé William H. Parker, developed into one of the world's foremost professional police agencies by following the principles developed by Vollmer and Wilson (Palmiotto, 1997). Parker placed great emphasis on the importance of selecting the right people and subjecting them to rigorous training. He suggested that the training continue throughout an officer's career with daily training sessions during the pre-shift briefing time and periodic in-service courses (Walker, 1998).

In the mid-1940s both the New York State Association of Chiefs of Police and the New York Sheriff's Association encouraged mandated police training but it was not until 1959 that the New York legislature approved the first state mandated program. California, also mandating police training, passed the California Law Enforcement Standards Act in the same year. Eventually, most states followed suit (Palmiotto, 2003).

President Lyndon Johnson's 1965 Crime Commission established a task force to study the police training in America. In *Task Force Report: The Police* (1967), the commission made numerous recommendations. Among the recommendations were:

- Establish minimum selection standards

- Establish minimum standards for training

- Certify sworn personnel

- Conduct research designed to improve police service

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- Make inspections to determine compliance

- Provide financial aid (pp. 201-212)

Many of the recommendations have become reality with most states having established some type of commission to oversee police training and to certify officers.

The Law Enforcement Assistance Administration appointed the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals in 1971 to recommend improvements in the components of the criminal justice system. Focusing on police training, the Commission's document, *Report on the Police* (1973) recommended, among other things, that training program development include the identification of specific objectives and instructional methods.

In 1979, four police organizations joined forces to form the "Commission on Accreditation for Law Enforcement (CALEA)." The organizations were the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP), the National Organization of Black Law Enforcement Executives (NOBLE), the National Sheriffs' Association (NSA), and the Police Executive Research Forum (PERF), and they collectively strove to achieve recognition as professionals for law enforcement officers by creating standards for police agencies and developing a process for ensuring compliance for those desiring the accreditation stamp of approval (Palmiotto, 2003).

In the 1980s influential police executives and scholars began to focus on outcomes. In contrast to the previous fifty years' preoccupation with who should become a police officer and how police organizations should be administered, attention shifted to what the police should be expected to accomplish (Goldstein, 1979).

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In the 1990s, a consensus began to emerge about which duties and responsibilities should be included in the police role. Increasing media coverage of officers' use of excessive force caused a gradual shift toward community-oriented policing, returning officers to foot patrol to re-establish relationships with the citizenry by making regular and personal contact with them (Goldstein, 1993).

Adult Learning Theories

Mostly due to legal mandates for properly implemented training programs, police trainers today ascribe to modern philosophies of adult education. Motivated by professionalism, many of them hold college degrees in education ("Training," 1998).

Though the practice of teaching and educating adults started more than a century ago, discussions on adult learning developed much later. Several figures, for instance, Malcolm Knowles (1996), Jack Mezirow (1990), Paulo Freire (1971), and Allen Tough (1979), have made substantial contributions to theoretical development in the field of adult learning.

Andragogy

Andragogy and self-directed learning are the two most important elements of the knowledge base of adult learning (Merriam, 2000). Andragogy, defined by Knowles (1996), is "the art and science of helping adults learn" (p. 83). Departing from pedagogy as a method of teaching children, Knowles emphasized that adults should be taught in different ways. Knowles believed that "the main reason why adult education has not achieved the impact on our civilization of which it is capable is that most teachers of

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adults have only known how to teach adults as if they were children" (p. 82). Jarvis (2001) echoes that sentiment:

> Malcolm Knowles's formulation of andragogy was the first major attempt in the West to construct a comprehensive theory of adult education… While it was not as comprehensive a theory as he would have perhaps anticipated, he provided a baseline for considerable discussion about the nature of adult education (p. 157).

According to Knowles, "adults are more or less autonomous beings whose learning takes place within a developmental and social context fundamentally different from that of children" (Sawchuk, 2003, p.31). Knowles's theory contributed to the discussions of facilitation rather than the pedagogy of adult learning. Recognizing the value of the behaviorism and empiricism dominated learning theories in the 1950s and 1960s, Knowles blended them into his own, presenting five key assumptions (self-concept, prior experience, readiness to learn, learning orientation, and motivation to learn) as a proposed program planning model for designing, implementing, and evaluating educational experience with adults (Pratt, 1993).

Because andragogy acknowledges adults' needs, experience, and self-directed nature, it has become a technology of instruction or a facilitation of learning. Knowles (1980) viewed andragogy as a process design that included seven elements: climate setting, involving learners in mutual planning, involving participants in diagnosing their own needs for learning, involving learners in formulating their learning objectives, involving learners in designing learning plans, helping learners carry out their learning plans, and involving learners in evaluating their learning. So Knowles's andragogical approaches

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required a psychological climate of mutual respect, collaboration, trust, support, openness, authenticity, pleasure, and human treatment (Pratt, 1993).

Knowles's concept has had an enormous impact on adult learning theory. However, his theory is not without criticism. Hanson (1996) argued that "simply believing that adults are different from children as learners because they are adults is not sufficient grounds on which to construct a separate theory" (p. 100). Furthermore, Hanson elaborated why the assumption of adults as autonomous and self-directed learners was problematic in relation to cultural control and power structures presented in our educational institutions:

> In the context of subject areas increasingly pre-packaged in number of credits, predetermined levels of achievements and final certificates, the possibility of exercising complete autonomous self-direction is, in many ways, severely curtailed. Any theory of adult learning which advocates the importance of each individual as an individual, but avoids issues of curriculum control and power does little to address the actual learning situation of adults…Without institutional and curriculum reform to stress autonomy, individuality and self-direction, are adults being offered anything other than what was available through schools? (Hanson, 1996, p. 101)

Though Knowles's andragogy theory of adult learning was questioned as to whether it was a theory of learning at all (Draper, 2001), Sawchuk (2003) insisted that Knowles's work was "important to our understanding of adult learning," because he was "one of the first North American theorists to seriously problematize conventional notions of pedagogy from the perspective of the adult learner" (p. 32).

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Self-directed Learning

Allen Tough produced a seminal work, *The adult's learning project* in 1979. In this piece, Tough pointed out that more than two-thirds of all learning activities were planned, implemented, and evaluated by adults themselves. In Tough's documents of informal adults learning activities, adults engaged in a median of eight distinct learning projects and spent an average of 500 hours per year on learning (Sawchuk, 2003). Since that study, replications with diverse samples of adults have largely supported Tough's findings (Brockett & Hiemstra, 1991).

The principal ideas of self-directed learning include: a self-initiated process of learning that stresses the ability of individuals to plan and manage their own learning, an attribute or characteristic of learners with personal autonomy as its hallmark, and a way of organizing instruction in formal settings that allows for greater learner control (Caffarella, 1993). Tough believed that much significant learning was carried out by individual adults in the form of learning objects, largely outside of the influence of formal educational institutions (Tight, 2002).

Like Knowles's andragogy theory of adult learning, Tough's self-directed learning, though regarded as central to adult education practice, was often resisted by adults and has not been adequately addressed from a cultural perspective (Hiemstra & Brockett, 1994). Wlodkowski's (1999) view was that "as an instrumental approach, self-directed learning may need to be more often negotiated as an option than mandated" (p. 11). Brookfield (2000) echoed this viewpoint and asserted that self-direct learning was a politically charged concept:

The case for self-direction as an inherently political concept rests in two arguments.

First, that at the heart of self-direction are issues of power and control, particularly

regarding the definition of acceptable and appropriate learning activities. Who defines

the boundaries of intellectual inquiry is always a political question, and self-direction

places this decision squarely in the hands of learners. Second, exercising selfdirection

inevitably requires certain conditions to be in place regarding access to resources,

conditions that are essentially political in nature. Claiming the resources needed to

conduct self-directed learning can be regarded as a political act (p. 16).

Transformative Learning

J. Mezirow was another leading figure in adult learning theory development. He

introduced the theory of transformative learning to the framework. Mezirow (1990)

defined transformative learning as "the process of learning through critical self-reflection,

which results in reformulation of a meaning perspective to allow more inclusive,

discriminating, and integrative understanding of one's experience" (p. xvi). Mezirow

investigated the perspective transformation involved in achieving emancipatory

knowledge (Clark, 2002). Because learning does not always result in change of some

kind, whether of attitudes, skills, knowledge, or beliefs, Clark (1993) examined change

generated by transformative learning. He offered the following explanations:

Transformational learning produces more far-reaching changes in the learners than

does learning in general, and these changes have a significant impact on the learners'

subsequent experiences. In short, the transformative learning shapes people; they are

different afterwards, in ways that both they and others can recognize (p. 47).

Transformative learning has become increasingly important in the field of adult

education. Nonetheless, Mezirow's theory of transformation has been criticized by adult

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educators for ignoring the affective, emotional, and social context aspects of the learning process (Clark & Wilson, 1991; Lucas, 1994; McDonald, Cervero, & Courtenay, 1999; Taylor, 1994). Recognizing these issues, Mezirow, in his subsequent book *Learning as Transformation: Critical Perspectives on a Theory in Progress*, published in 2000, acknowledged their importance in the meaning-making process and acknowledged that social interaction was important in the learning relationship (Baumgartner, 2001).

In promoting transformative learning, Freire's (1971, 1972) emancipatory learning as a learning process offered another lens through which transformative learning theory was explored. Freire saw the purpose of education as social change. When students were involved in discussions on relevant life issues, they "recognized the large societal structures that oppressed them, and how they could overcome these barriers" (Baumgartner, 2001, p. 16). Through such processes, "learners came to see the world and their place in it differently, empowered in their new perspective, they could act to transform their world" (Baumgartner, p. 16).

One of the terms associated with Freire's work is "conscientization." It was "a process of developing consciousness, but consciousness that is understood to have the power to transform reality" (Taylor, 1993, p. 52). There are many links between Freire's idea of "conscientization" and other contemporary educational concepts. Tennant (1997) suggested some broad correlations:

The idea of analyzing one's experiences to achieve liberation from psychological repression or social and political oppression is a recurring theme in adult education. It is most commonly associated with the work of Freire but it is also a feature of some contemporary concepts of self-directed learning, andragogy, action research, models

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of the learning process and techniques of facilitation (p. 123).

Freire's work extended far beyond the inculcation of basic skills to include concern for broad themes of individual emancipation and community empowerment (Tight, 2002). Tight offered further elaboration that:

> Freire's work and writing is probably the best example in the field of adult education and training of ideas from the developing world coming to have a major influence in the industrialized world. It raises the issue of whether such cultural transfers are either practical or useful, as Freire's methods have been adopted and adapted with mixed success in many countries. More specifically, since Freire wrote in Portuguese, and has been read by most people in translation, it may be that something has been lost in that process (p. 115).

Because Freire's emancipatory learning theory originated from his work in developing countries, Weiler (1996) warned that "Freire's thought needs to be understood in the context of the political and economic situation of the developing world" (p. 130). Sawchuk (2003) also pointed out that the limits of Freire's critical pedagogy remained too rooted in "(1) the moment of critique, and (2) the work of pedagogue… that do little to help us to understand the masking and unmasking practices that go on in the daily lives of the oppressed outside pedagogical relations" (p. 36).

Communities-of-Practice

The concept of communities-of-practice is a recent phenomenon. This approach views learning as an act of membership in a "community of practice." The theory seeks to understand both the structure of communities and how learning occurs in them. Wenger (1998) regarded social participation within the community as the key to informal

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learning. In defining communities-of-practice, Hendry (1996) viewed it as the relationships that people develop to solve problems:

> Within communities-of-practice people share tacit knowledge through which dialogue brings this to the surface; they exchange ideas about work practice and experiment with new methods and ideas; they innovate new problem solving techniques and simultaneously manage and repair the social context. In other words, they engage in experimental learning, develop and refine cognitive structures, and engage in cultural formation. Through linked communities-of-practice, knowledge, rules for action, and culture are spread (p. 628).

In a recent study examining the academic service in a mid-west university, Allen (2003) provided nine functions that the community-of-practice (CoP) carried out within the organization that led to improved individual performance:

- Help CoP members define their roles and responsibilities in relation to one another
- Prove a network through which CoP members exchange resources
- Provide an environment where CoP members can share personal work experience
- Facilitate informal and formal training for CoP members
- Supply a channel for social interaction for CoP members
- Encourage work on major initiatives with other CoP members
- Provide opportunities to engage in professional development activities
- Encourage CoP members to refine and streamline institutional processes
- Provide support for and acknowledge CoP members' work supporting students (p. 139).

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Communities-of-practice should be understood in context. Tight (2002) suggested that communities-of-practice be seen as "a kind of middle way for studying adult learning, focusing neither on the individual or organization, but on the group" (p. 117). The concept of communities-of-practice is being increasingly used by professional groups like Xerox, IBM, and others. Hanna and Associates (2002) viewed it as a "common approach to develop positive learning environments, especially for professionals who need to keep up with current ideas, knowledge, and applications in a field or discipline" (p. 59). Additionally, they advocated that

> Within communities of practice all are learners, and all have the opportunity and the ability to contribute to the knowledge of the community and to the learning of its members. Because learning is connected with action, the consequences of successful learning are immediate, real, and powerful (p. 59).

The theoretical base of communities-of-practice drives from constructivist learning theory that regards learning as social in nature; knowledge is integrated in the life of the communities that shares values, beliefs, languages, and ways of doing things (Hanna & Associates, 2002).

Adult Learning Core Concepts

There are several core concepts related to adult learning and education: the relationships of learning, education, and training; adult learning assessment; lifelong learning; workplace learning, and adult learners' characteristics. Reviewing these core concepts enhances the understanding of officer training in academies and in-service training programs.

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Learning, Education, and Training

Tight (2002) presented several core concepts of adult education: learning, education, and training. He regarded the scope of learning as all-encompassing, much larger than the broad, knowledge-based, general activity of education, while viewing training as a more narrow, skill-based, and specific event, contained within the scope of education as shown in Figure 1.

Learning (outer circle)

Education (middle circle)

Training (inner circle)
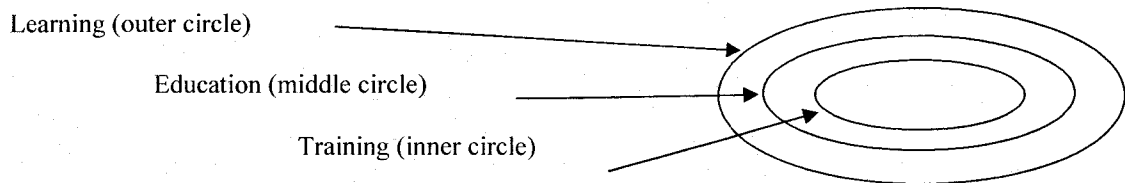
Figure 1. Scope of Education. *Source:* Tight, M. (2002). *Key concepts in adult education and training,* 2nd ed., p. 13.

Another diagram, Figure 2 shows the overlapping relationship of education and training. Tight (2002) The author suggested that "while some learning activities may definitely be termed either education or training, in between there is a larger or smaller group of activities which might legitimately be called either or both" (p. 13). In recognizing the critics of the simplistic nature of the presentations, Tight insisted that the diagrams "demonstrate differing but widely held views or perceptions" (p. 13).

Education   Training
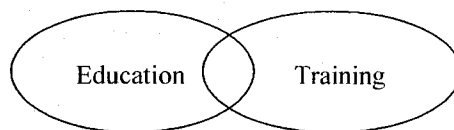
Figure 2. Alternative diagrammatic representations of core conceptual relations. *Source:* Tight, M. (2002). *Key Concepts in Adult Education and Training,* 2nd ed., p. 13.

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Table 1.

Recent Trends in Classroom Assessment

From	To
Sole emphasis on outcomes	Assessing of progress
Isolated skills	Integrated skills
Isolated facts	Application of knowledge
Paper-and-pencil tasks	Authentic tasks
Decontextualized tasks	Contextualized tasks
A single correct answer	Many correct answers
Secret standards	Public standards
Secret criteria	Public criteria
Individuals	Groups
After instruction	During instruction
Little feedback	Considerable feedback
"Objective" tests	Performance-based tests
Standardized tests	Informal tests
External evaluation	Student self-evaluation
Single assessments	Multiple assessments
Sporadic	Continual
Conclusive	Recursive
Assessment of learning	Assessment for learning
Summative	Formative

Source: McMillan, J. H. (2004). *Classroom Assessment: Principles and Practice*. Boston: Pearson Education, p. 17.

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Adult Learning Assessment

Airasian (1997) defined assessment as "the process of collecting, synthesizing, and interpreting information to aid decision making" (p. 3). By emphasizing its value, McMillan (2004) advocated that "assessment that enhances learning is as important as assessment that documents learning" (p. 1). McMillan identified recent trends in classroom assessment. These trends included alternative assessments, assessment integrated with instruction, authenticity, student self-evaluation, public standards and criteria, student involvement with assessment, and formative assessment. Table I summarizes these recent trends in classroom assessment.

In the adult learning environment, assessment by the instructor has validated adult learner competencies (Wlodkowski, 1999). An Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) report (2003) described assessment as both educational and helpful for adult learners:

> The individual must also be able to check whether their training is in line with their expectations, notably in terms of content, context, relationships formed, and monitoring. They must also have the benefit of an assessment of his/her results. Rather than being a (cardinal) measure used to judge them, this assessment should be educational and should help them make progress, or even improve their capacity for self-assessment (p. 170).

For assessment to be authentic and effective for adult learning, Wlodkowski (1999) developed the following assessment strategies for adult educators:

• Provide effective feedback

• Avoid cultural bias in assessment procedures

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• Make assessment tasks and criteria known to learners

• Use authentic performance tasks to enable adults to know that they can proficiently apply what they are learning to their real lives

• Provide opportunities for adults to demonstrate their learning in ways that reflect their strengths and multiple sources of knowing

• When using rubrics, make sure they assess essential features of performance and are fair, and sufficiently clear so that learners can accurately self-assess

• Use self-assessment methods to improve learning and to provide learners with the opportunity to construct relevant insights and connection (p. 244-267).

These assessment strategies used with adult learners tend to reflect the recent trends of assessment used in K-12 classrooms. When implemented, they will probably aid adult learners in pursuing their learning goals.

Adult Education and Lifelong Learning

Though "adult education" is still a common term used by practitioners and scholars in the field, the use of "adult education" was replaced in the 1980s by "continuing education" and then "lifelong learning" (Rogers, 2002). Longworth (2003) suggested several reasons why the term "lifelong learning" was particularly appropriate for the period of time: global demographics; pervasive influence of television and the media; environmental imperatives; new development of science and technology; the explosion of information and knowledge; the need for both industry and people to remain innovative and flexible, and increasing individualization. For these reasons, Longworth (2003) stated that lifelong learning "is not only for the educational elites… In the long run lifelong learning excludes no one" (p. 12).

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Lifelong learning presents a major change within the educational construct. Jarvis (2001) elaborated this revolutionary approach:

Within a generation we have moved from a world where most people could still expect to undertake little or no education or training after adolescence, to one where such education is a condition of economic survival for most, if not all. [This has] overturned the notion that education and training are solely a preparation for, and separate from life and work (p. 25).

Adult learners acquire a completely different set of skills and attributes through lifelong learning. These higher-order skills, listed by Longworth (2003) for personal growth, include self-management, handling and interpreting information, applying new knowledge into practice, learning to learn, questioning, reasoning, critical thinking, management, communication, adaptability, flexibility, versatility, and teamwork. Though adult education in the form of lifelong learning has moved to "center stage" as a different learning experience and as educational and political assurance, Rogers (2002) pointed out that much of the current discourse on lifelong learning has moved away from such issues as the encouragement and maximization of learning, turning instead to its costs and benefits: "lifelong education does not come without a price tag, and it serves the interests of a particular section of society" (p. 5).

Workplace Learning

Workplace learning has received increasing attention in recent years because "learning at work constitutes a large part of the learning undertaken by adults during their lives," (Boud & Middleton, 2003, p. 194). One of the contributing factors to increasing interests in workplace learning, identified by Spikes (1995), was that "workplace learning

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is a multimillion-dollar enterprise in which employees learn new skills designed to help them keep their organizations competitive in an increasingly global economic environment" (p. 1). While scholarly discussion on learning in the workplace is a relatively recent phenomenon, Watkins (1995) believed that "workplace learning encompasses what learners do rather than focusing solely on what trainers or developers do in organizations" (p. 3). Illeris (2003) believed that the interest from vocational training shifted to the direction of workplace learning or work-based learning because of such terms as "late modernity, globalization, and knowledge society" expressed broadly "in the international and societal development" (p. 167).

Scholars on workplace learning traced its beginning to the early 1900s. Watkins (1995) reviewed Frederick Taylor's and Lilian and Frank Gilbreth's time and motion studies in the 1900s; Charles R. Allen's introduction of the "show, tell, do, check" method of on-the-job training to train fifty thousand shipyard workers in World War I; the federal government's legislations of Comprehensive Employment Training Act, the Job Training Partnership Act, and the Training Within Industry Services of the War Manpower Commission during World War II; the establishment of the American Society of Training Directors in 1942, which was later renamed the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD); training with incorporation of human relations training; employee assistance programs and career development programs in the 1970s; distance learning strategies used in the 1980s; and emergence of differentiated training delivery systems in the 1990s, including management consultant, internal company trainers, external training agencies, community colleges, training centers, partnership between colleges and businesses, etc. The author concluded that "with a shorter and

shorter knowledge half-life, many workers will need to be retrained again and again" (p. 9).

As needs for employee workplace learning increased, it became apparent that certain preparations or skills were needed to instruct the trainers, educators and facilitators of workplace learning programs. Spikes (1995) examined three types of workplace educator: "the coach-to principal" approach; the "any teacher is better than no teacher" approach; and the approach of workers educated by instructors with advanced degrees at universities. Understanding the weaknesses of each model, Spikes offered a three-phase method to preparing workplace educators:

Phase 1: Initial professional preparation and exploration, consisting of activities related to the initial training and career exploration of workplace educator.

Phase 2: Advanced preparation and career exploration, focusing on the career exploration and advanced preparation of workplace educators.

Phase 3: Professional leadership and career redirection, with workplace educators shifting focus from individual development to the development of their broadly based field of human resource development practice and the implementation of meaningful programs of leadership development of fellow practitioners (p. 58-59).

Spikes' conclusion was that "ultimately the workplace educator of the twenty-first century is going to need to be someone who is to be professionally adaptive and intellectually creative" (p. 60).

General Characteristics of Adult Learners

Profiling adult learners is a complex task. However, Corder (2002) offered the following characteristics that described who were adult learners:

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- They are above the age of compulsory education;

- They have some experience of the world of work;

- They have family responsibilities;

- They have financial responsibilities;

- They are reasonably independent;

- They are able to make their own judgment about the world around them;

- They have some experience of life;

- Their tastes are more sophisticated than they were when they were younger, and

most importantly, this is not their first learning experience (p. 5).

Additionally, Rogers (2002) listed seven general characteristics that help better

understand adult learners in the context of aiding them to learn:

- The student participants define themselves as adults;

- They are in the middle of a process of growth, not at the start of a process;

- They bring with them a package of experience and values;

- They come to education with intentions;

- They bring expectations about the learning process;

- They have competing interests;

- They already have their own set of patterns of learning (p.71).

Furthermore, Herman and Mandell's (2004) description of adult students' learning

needs in relations to other competing commitments of their lives offered enlightenment

on how to accommodate their learning needs:

They are busy and pre-occupied with the responsibilities and commitments of adults

to their jobs and careers, to their families and their communities. They usually want

university degrees to serve their success and prosperity. They want their academic learning to be efficient and convenient: that is, to move quickly but also to flexibly accommodate the other demands on their time and attention (p. 1).

Recognizing the characteristics of adult learners, Fidishun (2002) concluded that "adults learn differently than traditional students and have different needs from institutions of higher education. This becomes especially evident when students interface with technology" (p. 215).

Based on the characteristics of adult learners, conducive climate and coherent policy should be in place, as it stated in the 2003 OECD report:

> A coherent policy specifically focused on adults has to take the special needs of adults into consideration as the main objective. It has to take into consideration the fact that adults are most often working or have busy lifestyles, and they need time off from their employment or extra time. This implies flexibility in schedules, in provision and in the recognition of prior learning experience, be it formal or nonformal. Supply should be available in evenings and weekends, or provide time off from work, and the possibility of part-time studies should be allowed (p. 91).

The OECD report (2003) further emphasized attention to the needs of adult learners:

> To convince adults that learning is worthwhile, education and training must be offered in the context of a project, in the broadest sense, with a clear goal. The educational approach and the entire learning scheme must be suited to adults' needs, the pace at which they work and the many kinds of constraints they face (p. 122).

Because the characteristics of adult learners are unique, they require a specialized set of teaching pedagogy and different learning facilities, accommodations, and learning

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strategies. Understanding these characteristics will help in the development of sound policies to meet the needs of adult learners.

Training Needs Assessment

Understanding the needs of the organization as well as the needs of the individuals who make up the workforce is critical to the efficient operation of any enterprise establishment. Education is for the good of the individual, the good of the organization, and the good of society. It fills the gap between a person's present level of competencies and the higher level required for effective performance (Knowles, 1980). To help officers reach that higher level, the modern police agency conducts training needs assessments that provide insight into the type of training required (Coutts, 1989). The benefits of such needs assessments can be seen in all areas of the workforce:

Reporting on a study conducted within the carpentry trade, Gamble (2001) noted an unexpected outcome where it became evident that the trade was the inalienable property of the tradesman, not of the factory boss or foreman. In nursing, administrators seem to want competence over excellence for a quicker and cheaper result (Thompson & Watson, 2001).

Life insurance sales representatives and human resources managers indicate significantly different attitudes toward some of the necessary competencies required of the sales people (Fan, 2004). In a training needs assessment of the secretarial employees at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Jerich (2000) found statistically significant differences in responses based on employees' demographics. Furthermore, Jerich found that the differences were at the levels of education, work unit, and total years of secretarial experience. Studying the training needs of librarians in Kansas

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universities, Zhang (2004) recommended that further studies be conducted on the perceptions of the support staff, supervisors, and library administrators regarding the support staff's training needs on computer skills.

Determining the Police Training Curriculum

Training content for both a basic police academy curriculum and an in-service training program is traditionally determined from the results of an in-depth training needs assessment of police officers' jobs. This methodology, referred to as Task Analysis, is applied for determining training program content (Palmiotto, 2003). The process involves determining the knowledge and skills necessary for a person to function effectively in the job on a day-to-day basis by investigation of the perceptions of both officers and administrators. (Michaud, 1978; Denning & Verschelden, 1993). In fact, for Task Analysis, the information provided by professional practitioners of the jobs for which the training is being developed (the officers) holds the highest priority (Wircenski, Sullivan, & Moore, 1989). This suggests a disconnect between the experiences of officers and administrators and presents a possible conflict between the two groups regarding perceptions of patrol officer training needs.

Perceptions of Training Needs

While police officers have carried firearms since the period following World War I, official sanction of the practice did not take place until late in the 19th Century. For example, in 1857, New York police officers officially were armed only with billy clubs. However, as a result of increased violence and attacks on police officers that year, they

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also were issued .32 caliber revolvers, though the police commissioners "never officially authorized the weapons and in fact denied they purchased them for the men's use" (Miller, 1977, p. 51). As Gregory Morrison (1995) explained, "This leaves little doubt about why training suffered from neglect: one obviously cannot conduct firearms training for police officers who officially do not possess them" (p.48).

In the 1980s and early 1990s, police training in the United States was focused on the traditional capacities and roles of police officers who were selected and trained to perform only the basic activities associated with law enforcement, such as patrol, investigation, keeping the peace, arrest, and report writing (Kaminsky & Martin, 2000; Jones, 1999; Buerger, 1998; Lord, 1998; Marion, 1998; Schwartz & Yonkers, 1991; Coutts, 1989; Meadows, 1987; Stone & DeLuca, 1985). The paradox is that a majority of training curricula were designed almost exclusively to teach officers what they would be doing during only a small percentage of their on-duty time. Police instructors usually centered courses on such standard topics as criminal law, defensive tactics, firearms training, crowd control, investigative procedures, mechanics of arrest, proper use of force, traffic enforcement, and accident investigation, seldom venturing into advanced areas of study. These important hands-on topics should remain in the police training academy curriculum; however, the majority of these subjects only involve the mechanical aspects of police work. Semi-automatic firearms, collapsible batons, hinged handcuffs, and car-mounted computers are recent advancements for law enforcement, and require different, more complicated and perishable skills. This necessitates that curriculum be developed to address these issues and that training be delivered more frequently to keep the skills sharp (Charles, 2000).

As the role of the police evolved, change occurred in the ideas about how the job was to be performed. Community Oriented Policing is a relatively new concept in which law enforcement officers work in concert with the community to solve the root causes of crime (Allen, 2002). This notion of police as problem solvers has enjoyed substantial success but has major implications for the content and form of training programs, which may not foster the skills police need to solve problems. Law enforcement training programs teach civil and criminal law, department regulations, and officer skills without much attention to how these might apply to specific problems police face (Goldstein, 1990). For instance, Geller & Toch (1996) claim that "No one knows what excessive force is" (p. 12). They go on to say that "Successful criminal prosecutions of police officers for the use of excessive force are extremely rare" (p. 25). And that "Excessive force should be defined as the use of more force than a highly skilled police officer would find necessary to use in that particular situation" (p. 31). They use the following hypothetical situation to illustrate:

> An officer responds to a report of a domestic disturbance called in by a neighbor of the quarreling couple. He knocks on the door of the apartment in which he can hear a loud argument proceeding. A man, smelling strongly of alcohol, answers the door with the greeting, "What the fuck do you want?" In response, the officer explains that he has received a complaint about the noise. The man steps back from the doorway, leaving the door open, and points to a woman in the room saying, "If there's a problem, it's that nigger bitch's fault!" Infuriated by the remark, the woman, who seems to be drunk or high, grabs a cast iron ashtray and charges at the man, who jumps behind the officer for cover. The officer draws his baton and knocks

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the ashtray out of the woman's hand, breaking her thumb in the process. Upon seeing "his woman" struck by the officer, the man becomes outraged and, from behind, knocks the officer to the floor with a roundhouse right punch. On the floor and dazed from the blow, the officer looks up to see that the woman has retrieved the baton he dropped when the man knocked him to the floor. She strikes the officer once on the hip, and when she brings the baton up for a second hit aimed at the officer's head, the officer draws his pistol, screams for her to stop, and shoots her in the stomach as she swings her arm down with another blow. He then points the pistol at the man who backs away, holding him at gunpoint and calling for help (p. 102).

Why, under the "highly skilled police officer" standard, is the above scenario an example of excessive force? Every forceful act of the officer was an act of self-defense. Also, it is doubtful that a lesser degree of force would have been effective. The problem is that the officer handled the complaint by himself. A skilled officer would have waited for another officer to arrive. Incidents of unnecessary force as well as police brutality can be reduced by training. It is evident when we examine the development of boxers, diplomats, combat soldiers, and trial lawyers that maintaining one's professionalism under stressful and confrontational conditions is a skill that can be taught.

In a 1973 study of fifty-one Los Angeles County police departments the major determinants of departmental shooting rates were not the crime and violence levels, but personal philosophies and policies, written or otherwise, of top police administrators. Similarly, a 1988 study in Philadelphia reported that the rate of police shootings had more to do with whether "law and order" politician Frank Rizzo was mayor than with any quantifiable measures of threats to police officers' lives or safety (Geller & Toch, 1996).

In short, police departments vary in their tolerance of the use of force by officers, and, to the extent that formal training reflects these variations, it affects officers' decisions to engage in force.

The most significant change in policing not due to technology comes from philosophies regarding policing methods. Twenty-first century policing is not militaristic, interacting very little with citizens, nor is it a reactive governmental approach. No longer is the concept of brute strength the preferred method of countering crime (Walker, 1992). Twenty-first century policing is about police officers being compassionate members of the community, walking or bicycling through the streets of their own neighborhoods, living among the citizens they serve. Getting out of the patrol car and interacting with the public goes hand-in-hand with the new, innovative style of proactive police work. Partnering with civilians in the community by developing rapport and sharing information increases the police officer's ability to do the job (Allen, 2002).

Because of the increased contact that police have with citizens as a result of community-oriented policing methods, officers must receive training in such areas as interpersonal interaction, ethnic diversity, drug and alcohol awareness, and domestic violence. Historically, the police training curriculum has devoted minimal attention to these skills. For example, for reasons of safety and liability, many administrators require that each police officer qualifies several times a year with his or her firearm, a tool that most officers never use in the official performance of their duties (Gaines, Southerland, & Angell, 1991). Ironically, courses dealing with communication skills for officers are quite rare, yet these skills are used on a daily basis by patrol officers. Research has

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shown that when an officer communicates skillfully and empathetically, stressful encounters are often resolved favorably (Gaines, et al., 1991).

Another area of police training that merits specific mention is that of ethics. The history of ethical problems and corruption in law enforcement is well documented, and yet ethics training is still not a part of most law enforcement in-service training programs (Dombrink, 1988; Schmalleger, 1997).

The Efficacy of Police Training

As illustrated in the following paragraphs, the value of training is supported by an abundance of evidence. The studies featured here examine the efficacy of training in various disciplines. The following is only a small sample of the vast amount of published studies regarding effective training programs.

In a comprehensive evaluation of the effects of training on police officer attitudes on domestic violence, Smithey, Green, and Giacomazzi (2000) found that attitudes of police officers toward domestic violence were not significantly changed. The study showed that there was no significant difference in officers' time spent at a domestic violence scene, nor in the number of cases accepted for prosecution. However, during the six months following the training, there was a significant improvement in convictions for domestic violence in both the experimental and control groups. So, though no attitude change was seen, the improved conviction rate showed a possible effect of the training on the quality of the work the officers applied to domestic violence cases.

In a study investigating the efficacy of crisis (hostage) negotiation training at the Federal Bureau of Investigation's (FBI) Advanced Law Enforcement Academy, significant improvements in the agents' handling of crisis incidents were reported (Van

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Hasselt, Baker, Romano, Schlessinger, Zucker, Dragone, & Perera, 2006). Zacker and Bard (1973) examined the effects of conflict management training on police officers and found that officers who completed the training showed more improvement on every criterion variable than those in the control group. Examining police officers' decisions to shoot Black and White criminal suspects, Plant and Peruche (2005) used computer simulation to expose officers to "crimes in progress" scenarios. They found that after extensive training with the program, in which the race of the suspect was unrelated to the presence of a weapon, officers were able to eliminate previously held biases.

Summary

As the needs of society change in response to innovation and modernization, so do the demands placed on law enforcement agencies. Police professionals at all levels, from basic patrol officers to chief executives, must update their skills, and recruits must possess a somewhat different set of skills than their predecessors. New technologies, and evolving philosophies of policing necessitate shifts in police training programs and in performance standards.

Since Payne's 1984 comprehensive study of policing, the most significant change in policing not due to technology has come in the philosophical area of police methodologies. Militaristic, brute strength policing is extinct. Officers now mingle with the community, proactive and innovative in their approach to controlling crime.

Training has also evolved since the 1984 study. More emphasis is placed on interpersonal communication skills. Likewise, basic policing skills, such as firearms and pursuit driving, have been enhanced by technology advancements. Virtual reality

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simulators have made realistic training scenarios possible without jeopardizing officer safety, while at the same time making the officer more effective when on the streets.

Training needs assessments usually include topics identified by industry experts. Too frequently the experts consulted are supervisors and administrators (Dato et al., 2000). Even the regulatory bodies that decide statewide standards for law enforcement generally consist of agency administrators. Unless comprehensive training needs analyses are conducted that include information gathered from all levels of police personnel, training programs will suffer from serious inadequacies (Coutts, 1989).

After 20 years, topics such as use of deadly force, firearms, pursuit driving, police stress, crisis intervention, officer survival, criminal investigation, criminal law, and first aid, to name only a few, are still relevant to police work and training. This study provides insight into whether or not today's chiefs, sheriffs, trainers, and officers agree on which areas of training are most pertinent.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to identify and then analyze the perceived training needs of law enforcement personnel as reported by patrol officers, training officers, and top police administrators of Southern Nevada. Chapter two provided the foundation for the research design and methodology of the study. This chapter discusses how it was designed. It presents a description of the questionnaire and the process used to develop. The research sample is described, as well as how it was chosen. And finally, the data collection process is discussed, and the methods used to analyze the data are addressed.

Design of the Study

This study was descriptive in nature, examining the correlations among the respondent's rank or position within his or her organization and the perceptions of those respondents regarding the 57 topics of police training recommended by Nevada Administrative Code, Chapter 289. Through an extensive search of the literature, the author was unable to locate a survey instrument that investigates the differences in perceived training needs for police between police officers, training officers, and top police administrators. Therefore, the attached instrument, Appendix C, was developed by the author to be used for the study.

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To enhance content validity of the survey instrument, the author selected the topics of police training from the required subjects listed in the Nevada Administrative Code, Chapter 289, subsection 140 – Minimum standards of training: Training Category I, subsection 150 – Minimum standards of training: Training Category II, and subsection 160 – Minimum standards of training: Training Category III. The Code is arranged in six sections, grouping the topics of instruction as follows:

Section 1. Legal issues, including:

Criminal Law;

Juvenile Law;

Child & Elderly Abuse;

Search and Seizure;

Constitutional Law/Probable Cause;

Civil Liability;

Criminal Procedures/Laws of Arrest; and

Traffic Law Enforcement.

Section 2. Officer skills, including:

Use of Deadly Force;

Basic Firearms;

Firearms Qualification;

Advanced Firearms;

Less-than-Lethal Weapons;

First Aid;

Cardio pulmonary resuscitation (CPR);

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Emergency Medical Technician (EMT);

Automated External Defibrillator (AED);

Stress Reduction Techniques;

Counter-Terrorism and Weapons of Mass Destruction;

Developing Sources of Information (Snitches);

Report Writing;

Evidence Handling;

Crime Scene Preservation;

Crime Scene Processing;

Dealing with the Mentally Ill; and

Emergency Vehicle Operations.

Section 3. Investigations, including:

National Crime Information Center (NCIC);

Crisis Intervention;

Narcotics Investigations;

Gangs and Cults;

Criminal Investigation;

Interviewing and Interrogation Techniques;

DUI Investigations; and

Traffic Accident Investigations.

Section 4. Community relations, including:

Professional Ethics;

Cultural Diversity;

Workplace/Sexual Harassment;

Blood-Borne Pathogens;

Workplace Violence;

Personal Defensive Tactics;

Physical Methods of Arrest;

Interpersonal Communication;

Crisis Intervention; and

Community Oriented Policing.

Section 5. Procedures for patrol, including:

Patrol Procedures;

Officer Survival Techniques;

Building Searches;

Use of the Police Radio;

High-Risk Vehicle Stops;

Domestic Violence/Stalking; and

Routine or Low-Risk Traffic Stops.

Section 6. Miscellaneous, including:

Courtroom Testimony and Demeanor;

Care and Custody of Prisoners;

Fingerprinting;

Media Relations;

Fire Safety and Use of Emergency Equipment; and

Supervisory/Management Techniques.

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For purposes of consistency and ease of understanding, the survey instrument was divided into two parts: Part I – Perceived Need for Training including subsections that correspond to the six sections from the Nevada Administrative Code and Part II – Demographic Information.

For purposes of efficiency and economy, the survey was conducted on-line. On-line surveys are conducted over the Internet allowing participants to use computers to access programs housed on remote servers. The programs are designed to collect and process data. Because the researcher can retrieve the data remotely as well, this method of survey provides an efficiency of operation that features nearly complete elimination of paper, postage, mail out, and data entry costs (Dillman, 2000).

The survey instrument was located on a secure website. Participants registered for the questionnaire by creating their own unidentifiable user name and password, ensuring them confidentiality and anonymity as well as exclusive access to the survey questionnaire. Registering constituted signatory evidence of consent to participate. All data collected were written to CD Rom which was then secured in a locked container for a period of five years and will then be destroyed. The information on the website was deleted. Only the principal investigator of this project has access to the data.

To comply with federal regulations regarding the protection of research subjects, the proposal was submitted to the university's Office for the Protection of Research Subjects and approval was obtained from the Institutional Review Board to conduct the study.

Conceptual Variables

According to Babbie (2004), an independent variable "is presumed to cause or determine a dependent variable" (p. 20). The independent variable is referred to as the

manipulated or treatment variable or simply as a factor. The following variables were included in this study:

- The rank of the person completing the survey,

- The length of employment in Law Enforcement of the person completing the survey,

- The level of education of the person completing the survey.

The dependent variable is assumed to be caused by the independent variable. The dependent variables included in this study are the survey respondents' perceptions of needed training for Law Enforcement officers in Southern Nevada are based on the topics of instruction in the Minimum Standards of Training listed in the Nevada Administrative Code, Chapter 289.

The survey gathered the following data and information from the sample:

- Perceived training needs regarding police officers,

- Respondent's current job assignment,

- Respondent's current level of education.

- Respondent's length of service in the Law Enforcement profession.

Research Questions

The previously listed data were used to answer the following research questions:

1. What is the need for training of law enforcement patrol officers as perceived by patrol officers?

2. What is the need for training of law enforcement patrol officers as perceived by training officers?

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3. What is the need for training of law enforcement patrol officers as perceived by top administrators?

4. What is the difference, if any, in the perceptions of needed training for patrol officers between patrol officers, training officers, and top administrators?

5. What impact does time in service have on the perceptions of needed training for patrol officers?

6. What impact does level of education have on the perceptions of needed training for patrol officers?

Instrumentation

The instrument used in this study was an online questionnaire (Appendix C) designed to measure the perceived training needs of patrol officers in the state and local law enforcement agencies in the Southern Nevada area that provide full time patrol services (Appendix D). The questionnaire involved approximately 15 minutes of the participant's time to complete. A consent form (Appendix B) explained the risks and benefits of the survey to the participants.

The instrument solicited pertinent data relating directly to perceived training needs regarding the respondent's perception of needed training in the previously mentioned 57 police related topics. By selecting the topics from the State of Nevada requirements for police training, the researcher provided for face validity (Babbie, 2004). Content validity was established by limiting the polling to sworn law enforcement personnel of the ranks of top police administrator, training officer, and patrolman (Babbie, 2004). Respondents were asked to rank the statements based upon their own personal perception of training needs on a Likert Scale assigning a value of one to the response of "not at all important,"

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two to "somewhat important," three to "important," and four to "very important." The scores in each training area were totaled for each respondent.

The questionnaire has been tested for reliability using a test-retest method. The researcher personally contacted mid-level management and retired officers in the local area and requested that they serve as a panel to evaluate the questionnaire. Nine respondents agreed to participate, completing the first phase of testing on February 23, 2006. In this phase, the panel reviewed the questions on the survey for readability and relevance to the topic of the study, and completed the online questionnaire.

Table 2.

SPSS Correlations

			Test 1	Test 2
Spearman's rho	Test 1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.527(**)
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.	.000
		N	510	506
	Test 2	Correlation Coefficient	.527(**)	1.000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	.
		N	506	510

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

In the second and final phase, the panel completed the questionnaire a second time on March 10, 2006. Scores between the first and second testing were downloaded to SPSS

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12.0 for Windows and compared using the Spearman Rank Order Correlation (ρ). As illustrated in Table 2, this yielded a value of .527 indicating a positive relationship between the two sets of scores, signifying instrument reliability (Pallant, 2001).

Table 3.

Table of Specifications for Content Validity

	Legal Issues		Officer Skills		Procedures for Patrol		Community Relations		Miscellaneous	
Respondent	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
1	Y		Y		Y		Y		Y	
2	Y		Y		Y		Y		Y	
3	Y		Y		Y		Y		Y	
4	Y		Y		Y		Y		Y	
5	Y		Y		Y		Y		Y	
6	Y		Y		Y		Y		Y	
7	Y		Y		Y		Y		Y	
8	Y		Y		Y		Y		Y	
9	Y		Y		Y		Y		Y	

Table 3 illustrates the responses of the members of the review panel. A response of "Y" indicates that the respondent believes that all questions in the category are worded at a level that is sufficient for law enforcement officers to understand and that the questions

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are clearly worded and without ambiguity. A response of "N" indicates that the respondent believes that some or all of the questions in that category may be difficult to read or confusing.

As indicated by the unanimous responses of "Y" all nine members of the panel reported that all questions on the survey instrument are readable and relevant to the topic of the study, thus the instrument addresses one of the considerations for Content Validity (Pallant, 2001).

Sample

Approximately 1800 subjects were asked to complete the online survey instrument. They include sheriffs, police chiefs, training officers, and commissioned law enforcement personnel who patrol the communities, responding to citizen-initiated complaints and crime scenes. They represent the Boulder City Police Department, the Henderson Police Department, the Las Vegas Metropolitan Police Department, and the Nye County Sheriff's Office.

The top administrator of each agency was personally contacted by the researcher to solicit authorization for their agencies to participate in the survey. Those who choose to participate were provided with a cover letter (Appendix A) that introduced the study and supplied the participant with the URL to access the questionnaire. They were requested to complete the survey themselves and to disseminate the cover letter to all training officers and patrol officers.

The administrators who agreed to participate distributed a department–wide memorandum to all patrol officers and training officers. The memorandum included the survey cover letter informing all recipients that participation is strictly voluntary,

outlining the benefits and risks involved (Appendix A). Though a 100 percent response rate was desired, only 208 responses have been received. The researcher twice requested of the agencies' administrators that they issue follow up memorandums, repeating the information on the initial notice. The notice was sent to the officers three times. The first notice yielded 176 responses, the second notice yielded 30 more responses, and the third yielded two. Because all participants in this study have met the requirements of the State of Nevada for basic law enforcement officer training and are members of full-service police agencies, it can be assumed that the subjects responding to the study are representative of the larger population (Babbie, 2004).

Because of the statutory requirement of 21 years of age for peace officers within the state of Nevada (Nevada Administrative Code [NAC], Chapter 289.110), the researcher is ensured that all who participated were at least 21 years of age.

Conducting the Research

The research was conducted as follows:

Step one: The online questionnaire was set up: A survey website was identified and the questionnaire was uploaded, including the consent form.

Step two: Authorization was obtained from the various agencies: Personal visits by the researcher to each agency's top administrator were conducted for the purpose of gaining cooperation in the study and to provide respondents access to the instrument with the cover letter explaining the study.

Step three: Progress was monitored: At regular and frequent intervals, the survey website was accessed to monitor progress.

Step four: Data were reviewed for accuracy and analyzed. When the survey was

closed, the data were assembled and downloaded to SPSS for frequency

analysis and Chi-square goodness of fit test.

Analysis of Data

Using a frequency comparison and the Chi-square goodness of fit test in SPSS—14.0

for Windows, an analysis of the data obtained from the questionnaires was conducted.

Goodness of fit testing refers to "the idea that the test indicates whether or not the

observed frequencies are a good fit to the expected frequencies" (Hinkle, Wiersma, &

Jurs, 1998).

To test the probability that the results are statistically significant, a significance level

of .05 was selected based on its common use among researchers in the behavioral

sciences (Hinkle, et al.). Results were displayed in tables, depicting the responses to each

survey question from the top administrators, training officers, and patrol officers.

Summary

The methods that were used to collect and analyze data have been presented in this

chapter. A questionnaire type survey instrument was used in this study to determine the

perceptions of needed training in the Law Enforcement community. Approximately

twelve percent of the target population responded to the survey and the data obtained

were analyze using a frequency distribution and Chi-square goodness of fit test. Findings

are presented in narrative and tabular form in Chapter 4: Results and Analysis.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

This chapter presents the results of this study of the perceived need for training of law

enforcement officers in Southern Nevada. The data analysis was reported in two parts:

demographics and answers to the research questions presented in this study. The

information was examined through written descriptions, graphs, and tables.

Demographics

The survey instrument was presented to the sworn police officers, training officers,

and top administrators of the law enforcement agencies that provide full-service criminal

patrol in Southern Nevada. Of the nine agencies that meet the criteria of full-service

criminal patrol, only four chose to participate. Those agencies are the Las Vegas

Metropolitan Police Department, the Henderson Police Department, the Nye County

Sheriff's Office, and the Boulder City Police Department. Of the approximately 1800

police officers, training officers, and top administrators within the participating agencies,

208 chose to complete the survey, resulting in a response rate of approximately twelve

percent. Of the 208 responses, 46 did not provide information regarding their rank,

making those cases invalid. Therefore, only 162 responses (approximately nine percent

of the total population) were used. To determine if the number of responses is an

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appropriate sample size that is representative of the population (1800), the formula $n \times \hat{p}$

> 5 was applied: where n $= 1800$ and $\hat{p} = .09$, $1800 \times .09 = 162$. Since $n \times \hat{p}$ (162) is

greater than 5, the sample size is considered to be representative of the population. To

verify the foregoing calculation, the formula $n \times (1 - \hat{p})$ was also applied, yielding the

following: $1800 (1-.09) = 1800 \times .91 = 1638$, also greater than 5, confirming that the

sample size of 162 is representative of the population (Rumsey, 2003).

Table 4

Respondents' Years in Service

Group	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative %
1 – 5	25	15.6	15.6
6 – 10	53	32.8	48.4
11 – 15	42	25.9	74.3
16 – 20	25	15.5	89.8
21 – 25	9	5.7	95.5
>25	7	4.5	100.0
Total	162	100.0	

In describing their current job, 112 (68.7%) of the respondents said that they are

sworn police officers, 46 (28.2%) reported that they are training officers, and four (2.5%)

claimed to be top administrators.

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Table 4 illustrates the respondents' years in Law Enforcement.

In analyzing the respondents' years in service, 48.4% (n = 78) have been in law enforcement for ten years or less, 41.4% ($\underline{n}$ = 67) have served more than 10 years but less than 20, and 10.2% ($\underline{n}$ = 16) have served more than 20 years.

Table 5

Respondents' Levels of Education

Group	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative %
Less than high school	1	0.6	0.6
High school	7	4.3	4.9
Some college, < 1 year	36	22.2	27.1
College freshman	6	3.7	30.8
College sophomore	13	8.0	38.8
College junior	17	10.4	49.2
Associate's degree	24	14.8	64.0
Bachelor's degree	43	26.5	90.5
Some graduate work	2	1.2	91.7
Master's degree	9	5.7	97.4
Doctor's degree	0	0.0	97.4
Other	4	2.6	100.0
Total	162	100.0	

Table 5 represents the respondents' levels of education.

Analysis of the respondents' levels of education reveals that most, 92.5% (n = 150),

have attended college, while 0.6% (n = 1) have not completed high school.

Research Questions

Six research questions were presented in this study. Each research question is

answered separately using descriptive and inferential statistical analyses. Each decision

on the statistical significance of the findings is made using an alpha (α) level of .05. The

respondents were given a questionnaire containing a list of 57 questions that were

designed to elicit information regarding each of the 57 basic training requirements for

patrol officers listed in the Nevada Administrative Code (NAC), Chapter 289.

Research Question 1

Research question 1 asked, "What is the need for training of law enforcement patrol

officers as perceived by patrol officers?" Categorized according to NAC 289, Table 6

presents the results from question 1 in the form of a frequency distribution. Reflected by

their choices of "Very Important," patrol officers placed the highest importance on the

Procedures for Patrol category (68.4% of the responses in that category were "Very

Important"), followed closely by the Legal Issues category (64.2%) with the

Miscellaneous category being the least important (22.8%).

Appendix E presents the results from question 1 in greater detail by listing the

responses to each survey question.

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Table 6

Categorized Perceptions of the Importance of Needed Training by Patrol Officers

	Not at all Important	Somewhat Important	Important	Very Important
Category 1. Legal issues	0.7%	8.3%	26.8%	64.2%
Category 2. Officer skills	5.9%	18.7%	31.0%	44.0%
Category 3. Investigations	3.4%	23.0%	36.6%	37.1%
Category 4. Community relations	4.9%	18.1%	32.9%	43.8%
Category 5. Procedures for patrol	0.1%	5.4%	25.5%	68.4%
Category 6. Miscellaneous	15.6%	31.5%	28.7%	22.8%

Research Question 2

Research question 2 asked, "What is the need for training of law enforcement patrol officers as perceived by training officers?" Table 7 presents the results from question 2 in the form of a frequency distribution showing that, similar to patrol officers, training officers placed the highest importance on the Procedures for Patrol category (70.3%), followed by the Legal Issues category (65.2%) with the Miscellaneous category being the least important (26.4%).

Appendix F presents the results from question 2 in greater detail by listing the responses to each survey question.

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Table 7

Categorized Perceptions of the Importance of Needed Training by Training Officers

	Not at all important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
Category 1. Legal issues	0.3%	9.5%	24.7%	65.2%
Category 2. Officer skills	6.4%	17.6%	31.2%	44.6%
Category 3. Investigations	4.9%	17.4%	39.1%	38.6%
Category 4. Community relations	9.8%	18.7%	31.1%	40.2%
Category 5. Procedures for patrol	0.9%	8.1%	17.7%	73.0%
Category 6. Miscellaneous	19.6%	28.6%	24.6%	26.4%

Research Question 3

Research question 3 asked, "What is the need for training of law enforcement patrol officers as perceived by top administrators?" Table 8 presents the results from question 3 in the form of a frequency distribution showing that top law enforcement administrators placed the highest importance on the Legal Issues category (59.4%), followed by the Procedures for Patrol category (53.6%) with the Investigations category being the least important (28.1%).

Appendix G presents the results from question 3 in greater detail by listing the responses to each survey question.

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Table 8

Categorized Perceptions of the Importance of Needed Training by Top Administrators

	Not at all important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
Category 1. Legal issues	0.0%	9.4%	31.3%	59.4%
Category 2. Officer skills	11.1%	23.6%	29.2%	36.1%
Category 3. Investigations	3.1%	31.3%	37.5%	28.1%
Category 4. Community relations	2.5%	15.0%	37.5%	45.0%
Category 5. Procedures for patrol	0.0%	3.6%	42.9%	53.6%
Category 6. Miscellaneous	8.3%	45.8%	12.5%	33.3%

Research Question 4

Research question 4 asked, "What is the difference, if any, in the expected and observed perceptions of needed training for patrol officers between patrol officers, training officers, and top administrators?" The respondents were given a questionnaire with 57 items divided into 6 categories relating to the topics of instruction required for police officer certification by the Nevada Administrative Code, Chapter 289. They were asked to identify the importance of each item. The data were captured and imported into SPSS version 14.0 for Windows and submitted to a Chi-square goodness of fit analysis, comparing the responses between patrol officers and top administrators, training officers

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and top administrators, and patrol officers and training officers. The top administrators'

responses were used as expected frequencies.

Analysis of the responses of perceptions of needed training from patrol officers and

top administrators reveals that all 57 questionnaire items differ in statistical significance,

rejecting the null hypothesis (H_0), with one exception. Crime Scene Processing scored a

chi-square value of 5.768, three degrees of freedom, and a p value of <.05, thus the null

hypothesis for that item is retained. Appendix H presents chi-square goodness of fit

statistical analyses of the responses from patrol officers and top administrators in greater

detail.

Analysis of the responses of perceptions of needed training from training officers and

top administrators reveals that all 57 questionnaire items differ in statistical significance,

rejecting H_0, with the following nine exceptions:

Juvenile Law – χ^2 = 3.467, df = 2, p <.05. Retain H_0.

Civil Liability – χ^2 = 1.103, df = 2, p <.05. Retain H_0.

Stress Reduction Techniques – χ^2 = 3.094, df = 3, p <.05. Retain H_0.

National Crime Information Center – χ^2 = 1.377, df = 2, p <.05. Retain H_0.

Cultural Diversity – χ^2 = 2.670, df = 3, p <.05. Retain H_0.

Workplace/Sexual Harassment – χ^2 = 2.367, df = 3, p <.05. Retain H_0.

Blood Borne Pathogens – χ^2 = 3.759, df = 3, p <.05. Retain H_0.

Supervisory/Management Techniques – χ^2 = 1.707, df = 3, p <.05. Retain H_0.

Appendix I presents chi-square goodness of fit statistical analyses of the responses

from training officers and top administrators in greater detail.

Analysis of the responses of perceptions of needed training from patrol officers and training officers reveals that all 57 questionnaire items differ in statistical significance, rejecting the null hypothesis (H_0), with no exceptions. Appendix J presents chi-square goodness of fit statistical analyses of the responses from patrol officers and training officers in greater detail.

Analysis of rank ordering of responses revealed that patrol officers believed that the five most important topics were Search and Seizure, Constitutional Law/Probable Cause, Use of Deadly Force, Officer Survival Skills, and Criminal Law. Least important to patrol officers were Emergency Medical Technician (EMT), Automated External Defibrillator (AED), Fingerprinting, Media Relations, and Fire Safety and Use of Emergency Equipment.

The five most important topics for training officers were Use of Deadly Force, Search and Seizure, Officer Survival Skills, Constitutional Law/Probable Cause, and Criminal Law. Their least important topics were Emergency Medical Technician (EMT), Media Relations, Fingerprinting, Traffic Accident Investigation, and Automated External Defibrillator (AED).

The most important topics according to top police administrators were Criminal Law, Search and Seizure, Criminal Procedures/Laws of Arrest, Use of Deadly Force, Crime Scene Preservation, Professional Ethics, and Interpersonal Communication. The foregoing most important topics all received a value of 4, very important, from each administrator and held equal hierarchical status of importance. The least important topics among the top administrators were Emergency Medical Technician (EMT), Automated

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External Defibrillator (AED), Cardiopulmonary Resuscitation (CPR), Traffic Accident

Investigation, and Workplace Violence.

Table 9

Top 5 Ranked Topics

Patrol Officer	Training Officer	Top Administrator
Most Important		
Search and Seizure	Use of Deadly Force	Use of Deadly Force
Constitutional Law	Search and Seizure	Search and Seizure
/Probable Cause	Officer Survival Skills	Criminal Law
Use of Deadly Force	Constitutional Law	Criminal Procedures
Officer Survival	/Probable Cause	/Laws of Arrest
Skills	Criminal Law	Crime Scene
Criminal Law		Preservation
Least Important		
EMT	EMT	EMT
AED	Media Relations	AED
Fingerprinting	Fingerprinting	CPR
Media Relations	Traffic Accident	Traffic Accident
Fire Safety	Investigation	Investigation
	AED	Workplace Violence

Table 9 presents the five most important and the five least important training topics of patrol officers, training officers, and top administrators.

Patrol Officers and Training Officers agreed about the five most important topics, though they rank ordered them differently. Top administrators agreed with them in only three areas, giving Officer Survival Skills and Constitutional Law/Probable Cause lesser importance.

Categorically, patrol officers and training officers agree that Procedures for Patrol is most important while top administrators rate Legal Issues as highest. Table 10 presents the ranking of topics by category.

Table 10

Categorical Ranking of Topics by Degree of Importance

Patrol Officers	Training Officers	Top Administrators
Procedures for Patrol	Procedures for Patrol	Legal Issues
Legal Issues	Legal Issues	Procedures for Patrol
Community Relations	Officer Skills	Community Relations
Officer Skills	Investigations	Investigations
Investigations	Community Relations	Officer Skills
Miscellaneous	Miscellaneous	Miscellaneous

Appendix I presents the tabular ranking of all topics by position.

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Research question 5 asked, "Does time in service have an impact on the perceptions of needed training for patrol officers?" Responses of "Very Important" on the questionnaire were tabulated according to years of service in law enforcement and charted to show if time in service had any impact on an officer's perceived need for training.

Frequencies by Years in Law Enforcement
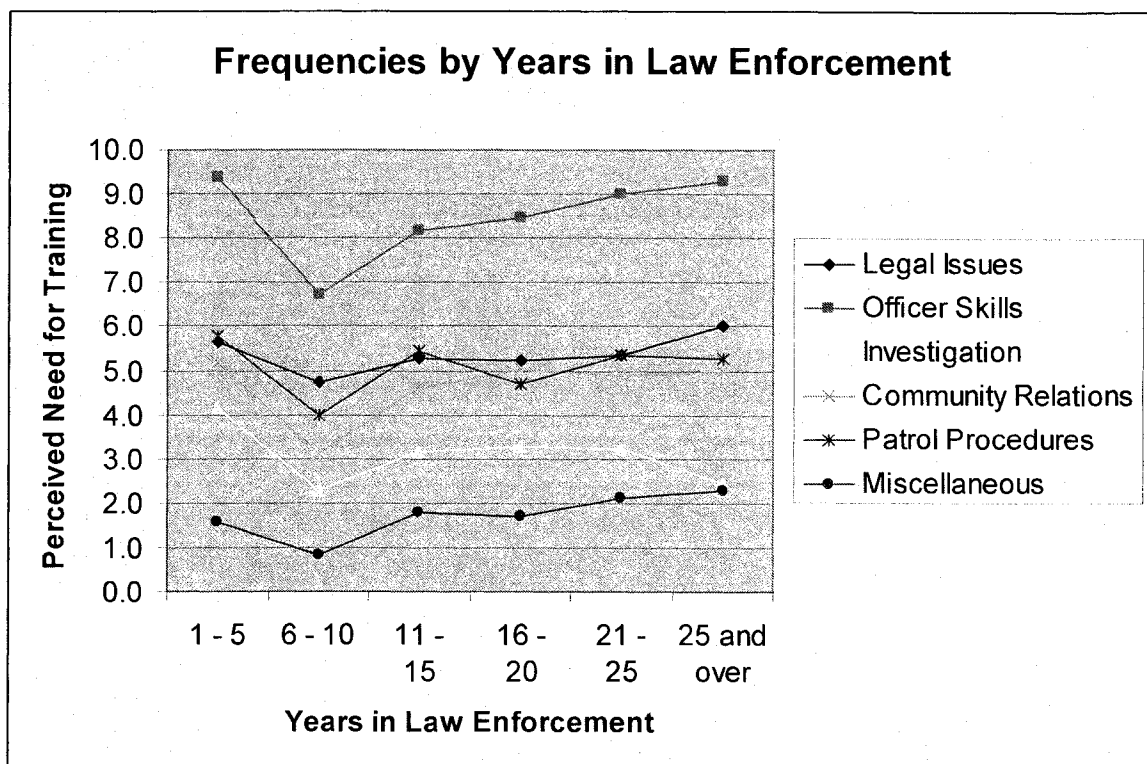
Figure 3. Frequencies by years in law enforcement. No remarkable trends are evident, however, the chart reflects that all areas of training are more important for officers with 1 – 5 years of service than they are for officers with 6 – 10 years of service. Overall perceptions of need for training show a slight upward trend as officers gain more time in service.

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Figure 3 graphically presents the frequencies by years in service of law enforcement

officers.

<center>*Research Question 6*</center>

Research question 6 asked, "Does level of education have an impact on the

perceptions of needed training for patrol officers?" Responses of "Very Important" on

the questionnaire were tabulated according to level of education and charted to show if

education had any impact on an officer's perceived need for training.
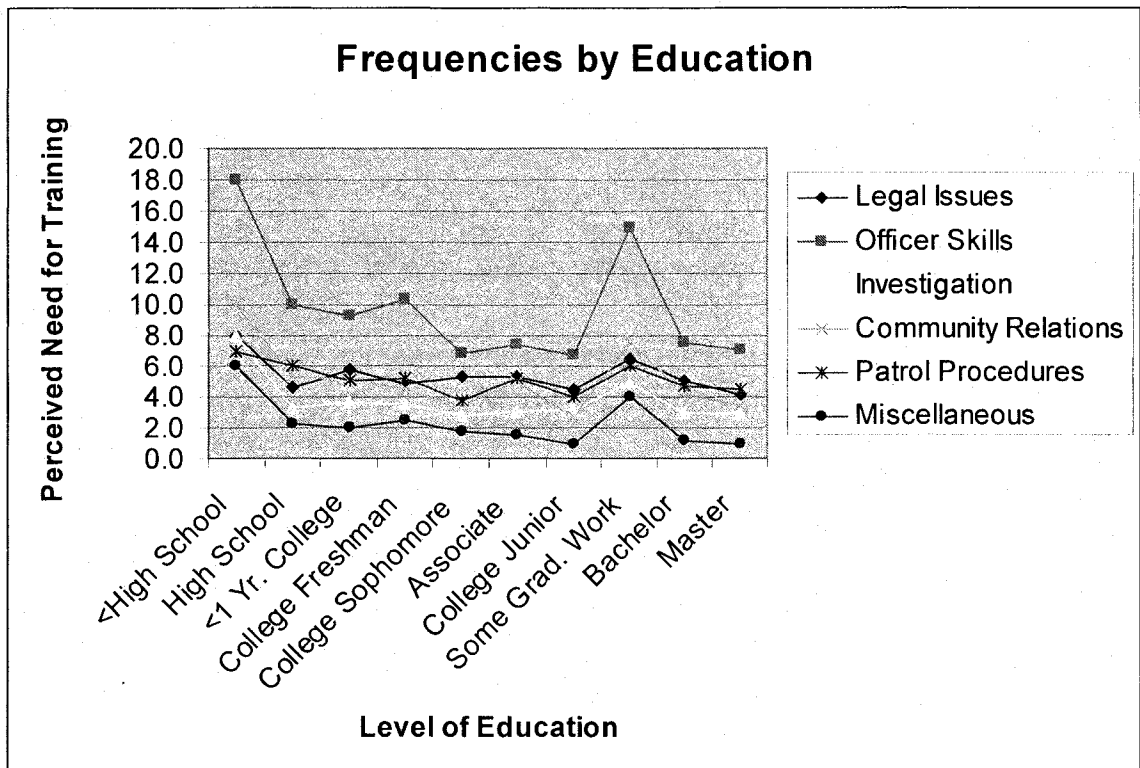
Figure 4. Frequencies by education. Most of the categories show no remarkable trends.

However, Officer Skills shows a slight downward trend overall. The high scores for

"Less than High School" and "Some Graduate Work" are the result of very low numbers

($n < 3$).

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Figure 4 graphically presents the frequencies by level of education of law enforcement officers.

Summary

This chapter presented the results of the statistical analysis of the study in written, graphical, and tabular form. For Research Question 1, the perceptions of training needs of law enforcement patrol officers held by the patrol officers themselves were addressed, rank ordered according to level of importance. For Research Question 2 the perceptions of training needs of law enforcement patrol officers held by training officers were addressed, rank ordered according to level of importance. For Research Question 3 the perceptions of training needs of law enforcement patrol officers held by top administrators were addressed, rank ordered according to level of importance.

Research Question 4 addressed the differences in the perceptions revealed in research questions 1, 2, and 3. Research Question 5 addressed the impact of time in service on all officers' perceptions of needed training for patrol officers, and Research Question 6 addresses the impact of the level of education on all officers' perceptions of training needs for patrol officers.

With the exception of Crime Scene Processing, analysis of the data shows a statistically significant difference in the perceived need for training between patrol officers and top administrators. Analysis of the data also shows a statistically significant difference between training officers and top administrators in the perceptions of needed training in Juvenile Law, Civil Liability, Stress Reduction Techniques, NCIC, Cultural Diversity, Workplace/Sexual Harassment, Blood Borne Pathogens, and

Supervisory/Management Techniques. No statistically significant difference exists in the perceived need for training between patrol officers and training officers. There was also no remarkable impact of years of service in law enforcement, nor level of education on officers' perceptions of needed training for law enforcement officers.

Conclusions and recommendations drawn from these findings are presented in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to analyze the perceived training needs of patrol

officers employed in the full-service law enforcement agencies of Southern Nevada. This

study surveyed patrol officers, training officers, and top administrators (chiefs and

sheriffs) from the Boulder City Police Department, the Henderson Police Department, the

Las Vegas Metropolitan Police Department, and the Nye County Sheriff's Office to

statistically determine if there were inconsistencies in training needs for patrol officers as

perceived by patrol officers, training officers, and top administrators.

All nine full-service law enforcement agencies in Southern Nevada were requested by

the researcher to participate in the survey. Appendix D presents a listing of those

agencies. The four agencies that are listed above chose to participate.

This study attempted to define the importance patrol officers placed on the need for

training in each of the 57 topic areas and then compare those findings with how the

training officers and top administrators perceived those needs. This study also attempted

to find any impact that an officer's years in service or level of education might have on

the perception of needed training for patrol officers.

A questionnaire was provided online for access by the participants of this study. To

support the research questions demographic data were collected including current

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position, current agency, years of service, and level of education. Variables used in the study were developed from the Nevada Administrative Code, Chapter 289 which dictates the training topics required for basic certification as a peace officer in the State of Nevada. Responses to the questionnaire items were analyze by frequency distribution and chi-square goodness of fit testing using a level of significance of .05.

A total of 208 responses were received, 46 of which were incomplete in the demographics section, rendering them invalid for this study. The resulting valid responses numbered 162 respondents providing data for the study, including 112 patrol officers, 46 training officers, and 4 top administrators.

The literature supported the fact that training for police officers is important, appropriate, and effective. It also explained the significant role of adult education principles in law enforcement training.

Conclusions

The major conclusions drawn from this study are as follows:

Hypothesis 1 examined the difference between top law enforcement administrators, training officers, and patrol officers in Southern Nevada regarding their perceptions of the training needs of patrol officers. The results indicated that there was a significant difference in what the top administrators perceive as training needs for patrol officers and what the patrol officers and training officers perceive to be the training needs for patrol officers as related to the criterion variables (questionnaire items). The results indicated no significant difference in the perceptions between patrol officers and training officers.

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This contrasts sharply with the results from Allen's (2002) study in which he found "no significant difference in what chief executives perceive as training and education needs for patrol officers and what the patrol officers perceive to be the training and education needs of a patrol officer as related to the criterion variables" (p. 102). There may be several reasons for this discrepancy. First, that Allen's study was conducted statewide in Mississippi, a mostly rural area, and this study was conducted in the metropolitan gaming community of Southern Nevada. Nevada officers are involved in quite different activities than are the Mississippi officers and with 36.4% holding at least Bachelor's degrees, they also show a higher level of education than the Mississippi officers who reported only 15% holding the same level of education. Second, that Allen's criterion variables were only nine categories as opposed to the greater number of variables presented in this study by topic of instruction. And finally, Allen evaluated the data using the t test and studying statistical means. This study evaluated the data with frequency distribution and chi-square goodness of fit testing because the data represented opinions and not quantifiable statistics from which means can be calculated.

Research Question 1 examined the need for training of law enforcement patrol officers as perceived by patrol officers. The results indicate that patrol officers placed the highest importance on the Procedures for Patrol category. This category included the following topics of instruction: Patrol Procedures, Officer Survival Techniques, Building Searches, Use of the Police Radio, High-Risk Vehicle Stops, Domestic Violence/Stalking, and Routine or Low-Risk Traffic Stops.

Research Question 2 examined the need for training of law enforcement patrol officers as perceived by training officers. The results indicate that, similar to patrol

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officers, training officers placed the highest importance on the Procedures for Patrol category.

Research Question 3 examined the need for training of law enforcement patrol officers as perceived by top administrators. The results indicate that top administrators placed the highest importance on the Legal Issues category, suggesting a difference between the perceptions of top administrators and the perceptions of patrol and training officers.

Research Question 4 examined the differences in the perceptions of patrol officers, training officers, and top administrators regarding the need for training patrol officers. Significant differences were evident between the responses of the top administrators and the responses of the patrol officers and training officers in most of the topic areas. Only one topic revealed no significant difference between the perceptions of top administrators and those of patrol officers, that of Crime Scene Processing. Nine topics had no statistical significance between top administrators and training officers: Juvenile Law, Civil Liability, Stress Reduction Techniques, NCIC, Cultural Diversity, Workplace/Sexual Harassment, Blood Borne Pathogens, and Supervisory/Management Techniques.

For all topics, statistically significant differences exist between the perceptions of patrol officers and training officers regarding the perceived need for training of patrol officers with no exceptions, thus, the alternative hypothesis is true for all topics. These findings also support the alternative hypothesis in the greater number of cases between patrol officers and top administrators as well as between training officers and top administrators.

This information suggests the statistical probability that top administrators and training officers are not as aware of patrol officers' training needs as are patrol officers.

Recommendations

The researcher made the following recommendations as a result of both the literature review and the findings:

1. A re-evaluation of the training curriculum mandated for basic law enforcement officers would be a worthwhile study. As the literature indicates, there is a definite need for continued training in all the areas examined.

2. This study should be made available to the various agencies for evaluation of their individual training programs. It should also be provided to the office of the Nevada Peace Officers' Standards and Training (POST) for re-evaluation of the basic standards required for certification, and for their reference library.

3. Agencies and Nevada POST should solicit input from patrol officers when evaluating any curriculum. Representation from patrol officer ranks should be included on the Nevada POST Commission.

4. This study should be repeated with the participation of the other agencies in Southern Nevada that provide specialized services such as gaming enforcement, taxicab regulation, and motor carrier enforcement.

5. Further work should be done to explain the remarkable decline in overall perceptions of training needs by officers who have 6 – 10 years of experience illustrated on page 76 in Figure 3.

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6. An investigation into the reasons for the differences in perceptions among the various groups would also be a worthwhile study.

APPENDIX I

COVER LETTER

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<Date>

<Chief Administrator>
<Department Name>
<Department Address>

Dear Sir/Madam:

My name is Nicholas Walling. I am a retired Henderson police officer and a doctoral student in the College of Education at UNLV. For my dissertation I am conducting an analysis of perceptions of the training needs of law enforcement officers. Specifically, I hope to contrast the perceptions of needed training for law enforcement officers between patrol officers, training officers, and top administrators in the Southern Nevada area.

Data will be gathered by online survey and should only take a few minutes of the respondent's time. If you would be so kind as to allow your department to participate in this survey, I ask that you circulate a memorandum to all patrol officers and training officers of your department. This memorandum should be worded as follows:

> *The University of Nevada Las Vegas is conducting a survey among the agencies of Southern Nevada, analyzing the perceptions of training needs for its law enforcement officers. Patrol officers, training officers, and top administrators are asked to participate. Participation in this survey is strictly VOLUNTARY. There is no monetary compensation, nor time off work given for completing it. However, you may enjoy the satisfaction of having a positive influence on training for law enforcement officers in the State of Nevada. It will only take a few minutes of your time to complete.*
>
> *Should you choose to participate in this survey, please access http://www.zoomerang.com/survey.zgi?p=WEB225DMV3FJUS and follow the directions on the screen. You will not be asked to identify yourself. All participants will remain anonymous.*
>
> *Your assistance is greatly appreciated.*

To reiterate, participation must be strictly voluntary and participants will not be compensated in any way for completing the questionnaire.
A copy of the final report will be provided to you should you choose to participate.

Thanks in advance.

Nick Walling
Graduate Student, UNLV

APPENDIX II

CONSENT FORM

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CONSENT FORM
UNIVERSITY OF NEVADA, LAS VEGAS

AUTHORIZATION TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH PROJECT

Consent is hereby given to participate in the study entitled:

An Analysis of Police Training Needs Comparing the Perceptions of Patrol Officers, Training Officers and Top Administrators.

1. Purpose: 1) to analyze the perceptions of the training needs of patrol officers in state, county, and municipal law enforcement agencies in Southern Nevada among patrol officers, training officers, and agency top administrators; and 2) to identify any inconsistencies that may exist between top administrators' perceptions, training officers', and patrol officers' perceptions of the training needs of patrol officers in Southern Nevada. The results of this study may possibly lead to a restructuring of the basic law enforcement training curriculum in Nevada academies and in-service training programs. Further, it will provide demographic data for comparison of departments across Southern Nevada.

2. Description of Study: Approximately 1800 participants will be asked to complete a two-part questionnaire that will require roughly 15 minutes to complete. Items on the questionnaire address issues that are routine and a part of your everyday employment duties.

3. Benefits: Benefits to the participants will be three-fold: 1) As an officer on the streets, you will have personal input to a possible restructuring of training for patrol officers in Southern Nevada; 2) It is a method through which you can relay personal perspectives to your top administrator on training issues within your own department without fear of retaliation; 3) It could possibly boost your morale by simply being asked for your input.

4. Risks: Risks of any sort are considered to be minimal to non-existent due to the method of inquiry, subject matter of the questionnaire, and anonymity.

5. Confidentiality: Participants' questionnaires do not request any form of personal identification. Since all contributors participate anonymously, individual identity is protected.

6. Alternative Procedures: There are no alternative methods for participating in this study.

7. Subject's Assurance: Whereas no assurance can be made concerning results that may be obtained, the researcher will take every precaution consistent with the best scientific practice. Participation in this project is completely voluntary and participants may withdraw at any time without penalty, prejudice, or loss of benefits. Questions concerning the research should be directed to Nicholas Walling at (702) 806-8099. The Human Subjects Protection Committee, ensuring that research projects involving human subjects follow federal regulations, has reviewed and approved this project. Any questions or concerns about rights as a research subject should be directed to the Institutional Review Board Office, The University of Nevada, Las Vegas, 4505 S. Maryland Parkway, Mail Code 1037, Las Vegas, NV, 89154-1037, phone (702) 895-2794. This form should be printed by the participant for a matter of record.

8. Signatures: Accessing the survey constitutes signatory consent to participate in the study.

APPENDIX III

ONLINE QUESTIONNAIRE

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PART I

Perceived Need for Training

On a scale from 1 to 4, where 1 is not at all important, 2 is somewhat important, 3 is important, and 4 is very important, please check one selection on the 1 to 4 point scale based on your personal opinion of that topic.

	1	2	3	4
1. Legal Issues				
Criminal Law:				
Juvenile Law:				
Child & Elderly Abuse:				
Search and Seizure:				
Constitutional Law/Probable Cause:				
Civil Liability:				
Criminal Procedures/Laws of Arrest:				
Traffic Law Enforcement:				
2. Officer Skills				
Use of Deadly Force:				
Basic Firearms:				
Firearms Qualification:				
Advanced Firearms:				
Less-than-Lethal Weapons:				
First Aid:				
Cardio pulmonary resuscitation (CPR):				
Emergency Medical Technician (EMT):				
Automated External Defibrillator (AED):				
Stress Reduction Techniques:				
Counter-Terrorism and Weapons of Mass Destruction:				
Developing Sources of Information (Snitches):				
Report Writing:				
Evidence Handling:				
Crime Scene Preservation:				
Crime Scene Processing:				
Dealing with the Mentally Ill:				
Emergency Vehicle Operations:				

3. Investigations

National Crime Information Center (NCIC): _____ _____ _____ _____

Crisis Intervention: _____ _____ _____ _____

Narcotics Investigations: _____ _____ _____ _____

Gangs and Cults: _____ _____ _____ _____

Criminal Investigation: _____ _____ _____ _____

Interviewing and Interrogation Techniques: _____ _____ _____ _____

DUI Investigation: _____ _____ _____ _____

Traffic Accident Investigation: _____ _____ _____ _____

4. Community Relations

Professional Ethics: _____ _____ _____ _____

Cultural Diversity: _____ _____ _____ _____

Workplace/Sexual Harassment: _____ _____ _____ _____

Blood-Borne Pathogens: _____ _____ _____ _____

Workplace Violence: _____ _____ _____ _____

Personal Defensive Tactics: _____ _____ _____ _____

Physical Methods of Arrest: _____ _____ _____ _____

Interpersonal Communication: _____ _____ _____ _____

Crisis Intervention: _____ _____ _____ _____

Community Oriented Policing: _____ _____ _____ _____

5. Procedures for Patrol

Patrol Procedures: _____ _____ _____ _____

Officer Survival Techniques: _____ _____ _____ _____

Building Searches: _____ _____ _____ _____

Use of the Police Radio: _____ _____ _____ _____

High-Risk Vehicle Stops: _____ _____ _____ _____

Domestic Violence/Stalking: _____ _____ _____ _____

Routine or Low-Risk Traffic Stops: _____ _____ _____ _____

6. Miscellaneous

Courtroom Testimony and Demeanor: _____ _____ _____ _____

Care and Custody of Prisoners: _____ _____ _____ _____

Fingerprinting: _____ _____ _____ _____

Media Relations: _____ _____ _____ _____

Fire Safety and Use of Emergency Equipment: _____ _____ _____ _____

Supervisory/Management Techniques: _____ _____ _____ _____

PART II

Demographic Information

Please respond by checking the appropriate boxes as they apply to you.

7. Gender: ☐ Male ☐ Female

8. Age: ☐ 21-30 ☐ 31-40 ☐ 41-50 ☐ 51-60 ☐ Over 60

9. Race: ☐ Caucasian ☐ Afro American ☐ Hispanic ☐ Asian ☐ Other (please specify)_____

10. Marital Status: ☐ Single ☐ Married ☐ Separated ☐ Divorced ☐ Spouse deceased

11. Years in law enforcement: ☐ 1-5 ☐ 6-10 ☐ 11-15 ☐ 16-20 ☐ 21-25 ☐ Over 25

12. Current position: ☐ Patrol officer ☐ Training Officer ☐ Top administrator

13. Current agency: ☐ Boulder City P.D. ☐ Clark County Park Police ☐ Henderson P. D. ☐ Las Vegas Metro P.D. ☐ Lincoln County S.O. ☐ Mesquite P.D. ☐ North Las Vegas P.D. ☐ Nye County Sheriff's Office ☐ UNLV P.D.

14. Education: ☐ Less than high school ☐ High school ☐ Some college, but did not finish first year
☐ Freshman ☐ Sophomore ☐ Junior ☐ Some graduate work
☐ Associate's degree ☐ Bachelor's degree ☐ Master's degree
☐ Doctoral degree
☐ Other (please specify) _____

15. Have you completed a Nevada approved basic law enforcement training academy? ☐ Yes ☐ No

16. If yes to question 15, was it a regional academy (not at your department)? ☐ Yes ☐ No

17. Do you hold Nevada POST certification? ☐ Yes ☐ No

18. How many sworn personnel are in your agency?
☐ 1-25 ☐ 26-50 ☐ 51-100 ☐ 101-250 ☐ Over 250

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APPENDIX IV

FULL-SERVICE AGENCIES OF SOUTHERN NEVADA

Clark County:

Boulder City PD
1005 Arizona St
Boulder City, NV 89005

Clark County Park Police
2901 E. Sunset Road
Las Vegas, NV 89120

Henderson PD
223 Lead Street
Henderson, NV 89009-5050

Las Vegas Metro PD
861 North Mojave Road
Las Vegas, NV 89101

Mesquite PD
500 Hillside Drive
Mesquite, NV 89027

North Las Vegas PD
1301 E. Lake Mead Boulevard
North Las Vegas, NV 89030

UNLV Police Department
4505 S. Maryland Parkway #2007
Las Vegas, NV 89154

Lincoln County:

Lincoln County SO
P.O. Box 570
Pioche, NV 89043

Nye County:

Nye County SO
1520 E. Basin Rd
Pahrump, NV 89060

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APPENDIX V

PERCEPTIONS OF THE IMPORTANCE OF NEEDED TRAINING BY PATROL

OFFICERS

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Perceptions of the Importance of Needed Training by Patrol Officers

	Not at all important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
<u>Category 1. Legal issues</u>				
Criminal Law	0.0	0.9	11.6	87.5
Juvenile Law	0.0	8.0	39.3	52.7
Child & Elderly Abuse	0.9	11.6	50.0	37.5
Search and Seizure	0.0	0.0	8.0	92.0
Constitutional Law/Probable				
Cause	0.0	0.0	9.8	90.2
Civil Liability	1.8	18.8	38.4	41.1
Criminal Procedures/Laws				
of Arrest	0.0	0.0	17.0	83.0
Traffic Law Enforcement	2.7	26.8	40.2	29.5
<u>Category 2. Officer skills</u>				
Use of Deadly Force	0.0	0.0	7.1	92.9
Basic Firearms	0.0	1.8	19.6	78.6
Firearms Qualification	0.0	4.5	25.9	68.8
Advanced Firearms	0.9	18.8	38.4	42.0
Less-than-Lethal Weapons	0.9	8.9	43.8	46.4
First Aid	5.4	36.6	35.7	22.3
CPR	9.8	33.9	36.6	19.6
EMT	33.0	39.3	22.3	5.4
AED	27.7	37.5	24.1	9.8
Stress Reduction Techniques	7.1	19.6	34.8	37.5
Counter-Terrorism and				
WMD	5.4	31.3	42.0	21.4
Developing Sources				
of Information	2.7	25.0	43.8	28.6
Report Writing	0.9	6.3	25.0	67.9
Evidence Handling	0.0	9.8	35.7	54.5
Crime Scene Preservation	0.0	8.0	26.8	64.3
Crime Scene Processing	11.6	24.1	34.8	29.5
Dealing with the				
Mentally Ill	0.9	28.6	36.6	33.0
Emergency Vehicle				
Operations	0.9	1.8	26.8	70.5
<u>Category 3. Investigations</u>				
National Crime Information				
Center (NCIC)	2.7	20.5	42.0	34.8
Crisis Intervention	4.5	31.3	42.0	22.3
Narcotics Investigations	1.8	21.4	49.1	27.7
Gangs and Cults	1.8	21.4	45.5	31.3
Criminal Investigation	0.0	3.6	32.1	64.3

Interviewing and Interrogation Techniques	0.9	6.3	17.9	75.0
DUI Investigations	2.7	33.9	36.6	26.8
Traffic Accident Investigations	12.5	45.5	27.7	14.3
Category 4. Community relations				
Professional Ethics	0.0	4.5	25.0	70.5
Cultural Diversity	8.9	26.8	34.8	28.6
Workplace/Sexual Harassment	8.0	25.9	36.6	29.5
Blood-Borne Pathogens	2.7	17.9	45.5	33.9
Workplace Violence	16.1	36.6	26.8	20.5
Personal Defensive Tactics	0.0	4.5	22.3	73.2
Physical Methods of Arrest	0.9	0.9	24.1	74.1
Interpersonal Communication	1.8	8.0	38.4	50.9
Crisis Intervention	3.6	27.7	38.4	30.4
Community Oriented Policing.	7.1	28.6	36.6	26.8
Category 5. Procedures for patrol				
Patrol Procedures	0.0	1.8	27.7	70.5
Officer Survival Techniques	0.0	1.8	8.0	90.2
Building Searches	0.0	3.6	25.9	70.5
Use of the Police Radio	0.9	11.6	37.5	49.1
High-Risk Vehicle Stops	0.0	1.8	20.5	76.8
Domestic Violence/Stalking	0.0	8.9	33.0	56.3
Routine or Low-Risk Traffic Stops	0.0	8.0	25.9	65.2
Category 6. Miscellaneous				
Courtroom Testimony and Demeanor	1.8	11.6	42.9	42.9
Care and Custody of Prisoners	0.9	18.8	42.0	37.5
Fingerprinting	36.6	33.9	18.8	8.9
Media Relations	25.0	46.4	18.8	8.9
Fire Safety & Use of Emergency Equipment	20.5	46.4	22.3	8.9
Supervisory/Management Techniques	8.9	32.1	27.7	29.5

Note. Numerical values represent percentages of all responses to the survey question.

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APPENDIX VI

PERCEPTIONS OF THE IMPORTANCE OF NEEDED TRAINING BY TRAINING

OFFICERS

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Perceptions of the Importance of Needed Training by Training Officers

	Not at all important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
Category 1. Legal issues				
Criminal Law	0.0	2.2	10.9	87.0
Juvenile Law	0.0	10.9	37.0	52.2
Child & Elderly Abuse	0.0	13.0	52.2	34.8
Search and Seizure	0.0	0.0	4.3	93.5
Constitutional Law/Probable				
Cause	0.0	0.0	8.7	91.3
Civil Liability	0.0	23.9	26.1	50.0
Criminal Procedures/Laws				
of Arrest	0.0	2..2	15.2	82.6
Traffic Law Enforcement	2.2	23.9	43.5	30.4
Category 2. Officer skills				
Use of Deadly Force	2.2	0.0	2.2	95.7
Basic Firearms	2.2	2.2	19.6	76.1
Firearms Qualification	2.2	0.0	30.4	67.4
Advanced Firearms	6.5	6.5	26.1	60.9
Less-than-Lethal Weapons	2.2	6.5	39.1	52.2
First Aid	4.3	30.4	43.5	21.7
CPR	6.5	37.0	34.8	21.7
EMT	23.9	45.7	23.9	6.5
AED	30.4	34.8	17.4	15.2
Stress Reduction Techniques	8.7	19.6	41.3	30.4
Counter-Terrorism and				
WMD	4.6	30.4	41.3	23.9
Developing Sources				
of Information	4.3	19.6	45.7	30.4
Report Writing	4.3	10.9	30.4	54.3
Evidence Handling	0.0	6.5	39.1	54.3
Crime Scene Preservation	0.0	4.3	30.4	65.2
Crime Scene Processing	4.3	30.4	32.6	32.6
Dealing with the				
Mentally Ill	2.2	28.3	43.5	23.9
Emergency Vehicle				
Operations	6.5	4.3	19.6	69.6
Category 3. Investigations				
National Crime Information				
Center (NCIC)	0.0	30.4	34.8	34.8
Crisis Intervention	6.5	26.1	45.7	21.7
Narcotics Investigations	2.2	15.2	47.8	34.8
Gangs and Cults	2.2	10.9	60.9	26.1
Criminal Investigation	0.0	4.3	21.7	73.9

Interviewing and Interrogation Techniques	0.0	2.2	17.4	80.4
DUI Investigations	2.2	23.9	50.0	23.9
Traffic Accident Investigations	26.1	26.1	34.8	13.0
Category 4. Community relations				
Professional Ethics	2.2	4.3	21.7	71.7
Cultural Diversity	15.2	30.4	26.1	28.3
Workplace/Sexual Harassment	13.0	26.1	32.6	26.1
Blood-Borne Pathogens	8.7	15.2	34.8	41.3
Workplace Violence	34.8	28.3	23.9	13.0
Personal Defensive Tactics	4.3	4.3	17.4	73.9
Physical Methods of Arrest	0.0	4.3	32.6	63.0
Interpersonal Communication	0.0	15.2	39.0	45.7
Crisis Intervention	6.5	28.3	41.3	23.9
Community Oriented Policing.	13.0	30.4	41.3	15.2
Category 5. Procedures for patrol				
Patrol Procedures	0.0	4.3	15.2	80.4
Officer Survival Techniques	0.0	0.0	8.7	91.3
Building Searches	0.0	4.3	15.2	80.4
Use of the Police Radio	6.5	23.9	19.6	50.0
High-Risk Vehicle Stops	0.0	2.2	19.6	78.3
Domestic Violence/Stalking	0.0	17.4	21.7	60.9
Routine or Low-Risk Traffic Stops	0.0	4.3	23.9	69.6
Category 6. Miscellaneous				
Courtroom Testimony and Demeanor	2.2	26.1	28.3	43.5
Care and Custody of Prisoners	2.2	21.7	39.1	37.0
Fingerprinting	39.0	23.9	26.1	8.7
Media Relations	32.6	45.7	15.2	6.5
Fire Safety & Use of Emergency Equipment	23.9	34.8	19.6	19.6
Supervisory/Management Techniques	17.4	19.6	19.6	43.5

Note. Numerical values represent percentages of all responses to the survey question.

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APPENDIX VII

PERCEPTIONS OF THE IMPORTANCE OF NEEDED TRAINING BY TOP

ADMINISTRATORS

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Perceptions of the Importance of Needed Training by Top Administrators

	Not at all important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
Category 1. Legal issues				
Criminal Law	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
Juvenile Law	0.0	25.0	50.0	25.0
Child & Elderly Abuse	0.0	0.0	75.0	25.0
Search and Seizure	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
Constitutional Law/Probable Cause	0.0	0.0	25.0	75.0
Civil Liability	0.0	25.0	50.0	25.0
Criminal Procedures/Laws of Arrest	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
Traffic Law Enforcement	0.0	25.0	50.0	25.0
Category 2. Officer skills				
Use of Deadly Force	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
Basic Firearms	0.0	25.0	50.0	25.0
Firearms Qualification	0.0	25.0	25.0	50.0
Advanced Firearms	0.0	50.0	50.0	0.0
Less-than-Lethal Weapons	0.0	25.0	50.0	25.0
First Aid	0.0	75.0	25.0	0.0
CPR	50.0	25.0	25.0	0.0
EMT	75.0	0.0	25.0	0.0
AED	50.0	0.0	25.0	25.0
Stress Reduction Techniques	25.0	0.0	25.0	50.0
Counter-Terrorism and WMD	0.0	75.0	25.0	0.0
Developing Sources of Information	0.0	75.0	25.0	0.0
Report Writing	0.0	0.0	25.0	75.0
Evidence Handling	0.0	0.0	25.0	75.0
Crime Scene Preservation	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
Crime Scene Processing	0.00	50.0	50.0	0.0
Dealing with the Mentally Ill	0.0	0.0	50.0	50.0
Emergency Vehicle Operations	0.0	0.0	25.0	75.0
Category 3. Investigations				
National Crime Information Center (NCIC)	0.0	50.0	50.0	0.0
Crisis Intervention	0.0	25.0	50.0	25.0
Narcotics Investigations	0.0	25.0	50.0	25.0
Gangs and Cults	0.0	50.0	50.0	0.0
Criminal Investigation	0.0	0.0	25.0	75.0

Interviewing and Interrogation Techniques	0.0	0.0	25.0	75.0
DUI Investigations	0.0	50.0	50.0	0.0
Traffic Accident Investigations	25.0	50.0	0.0	25.0
Category 4. Community relations				
Professional Ethics	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
Cultural Diversity	0.0	0.0	75.0	25.0
Workplace/Sexual Harassment	0.0	0.0	75.0	25.0
Blood-Borne Pathogens	0.0	25.0	50.0	25.0
Workplace Violence	25.0	50.0	25.0	0.0
Personal Defensive Tactics	0.0	25.0	0.0	75.0
Physical Methods of Arrest	0.0	25.0	25.0	50.0
Interpersonal Communication	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
Crisis Intervention	0.0	0.0	75.0	25.0
Community Oriented Policing.	0.0	25.0	50.0	25.0
Category 5. Procedures for patrol				
Patrol Procedures	0.0	0.0	50.0	50.0
Officer Survival Techniques	0.0	0.0	50.0	50.0
Building Searches	0.0	0.0	25.0	75.0
Use of the Police Radio	0.0	0.0	75.0	25.0
High-Risk Vehicle Stops	0.0	25.0	0.0	75.0
Domestic Violence/Stalking	0.0	0.0	75.0	25.0
Routine or Low-Risk Traffic Stops	0.0	0.0	25.0	75.0
Category 6. Miscellaneous				
Courtroom Testimony and Demeanor	0.0	0.0	50.0	50.0
Care and Custody of Prisoners	0.0	0.0	25.0	75.0
Fingerprinting	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
Media Relations	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
Fire Safety & Use of Emergency Equipment	50.0	50.0	0.0	0.0
Supervisory/Management Techniques	0.0	25.0	0.0	75.0

Note. Numerical values represent percentages of all responses to the survey question.

APPENDIX VIII

CHI-SQUARE TEST STATISTICS COMPARING PATROL OFFICERS AND TOP

ADMINISTRATORS

Chi-square Test Statistics Comparing Patrol Officers and Top Administrators

	x^2	df	p	sig.
Category 1. Legal issues				
Criminal Law	149.804	2	>.05	reject H_0
Juvenile Law	13.042	2	>.05	reject H_0
Child & Elderly Abuse	48.208	3	>.05	reject H_0
Search and Seizure	78.893	1	>.05	reject H_0
Constitutional Law/Probable				
Cause	49.911	1	>.05	reject H_0
Civil Liability	22.341	3	>.05	reject H_0
Criminal Procedures/Laws				
of Arrest	48.893	1	>.05	reject H_0
Traffic Law Enforcement	27.912	3	>.05	reject H_0
Category 2. Officer skills				
Use of Deadly Force	82.286	1	>.05	reject H_0
Basic Firearms	56.696	2	>.05	reject H_0
Firearms Qualification	32.926	2	>.05	reject H_0
Advanced Firearms	28.506	3	>.05	reject H_0
Less-than-Lethal Weapons	37.957	3	>.05	reject H_0
First Aid	30.872	3	>.05	reject H_0
CPR	13.732	3	>.05	reject H_0
EMT	139.810	3	>.05	reject H_0
AED	132.101	3	>.05	reject H_0
Stress Reduction Techniques	10.297	3	>.05	reject H_0
Counter-Terrorism and				
WMD	27.182	3	>.05	reject H_0
Developing Sources				
of Information	25.336	3	>.05	reject H_0
Report Writing	87.875	3	>.05	reject H_0
Evidence Handling	22.278	2	>.05	reject H_0
Crime Scene Preservation	55.622	2	>.05	reject H_0
Crime Scene Processing	5.768	3	<.05	retain H_0*
Dealing with the				
Mentally Ill	34.723	3	>.05	reject H_0
Emergency Vehicle				
Operations	104.115	3	>.05	reject H_0
Category 3. Investigations				
National Crime Information				
Center (NCIC)	23.030	3	>.05	reject H_0
Crisis Intervention	37.048	3	>.05	reject H_0
Narcotics Investigations	39.111	3	>.05	reject H_0
Gangs and Cults	27.762	3	>.05	reject H_0
Criminal Investigation	42.762	2	>.05	reject H_0
Interviewing and Interrogation				
Techniques	110.161	3	>.05	reject H_0

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DUI Investigations	29.682	3	$>.05$	reject H_0
Traffic Accident Investigations	52.009	3	$>.05$	reject H_0
Category 4. Community relations				
Professional Ethics	76.839	2	$>.05$	reject H_0
Cultural Diversity	17.399	3	$>.05$	reject H_0
Workplace/Sexual				
Harassment	20.312	3	$>.05$	reject H_0
Blood-Borne Pathogens	28.692	3	$>.05$	reject H_0
Workplace Violence	19.853	3	$>.05$	reject H_0
Personal Defensive Tactics	31.286	2	$>.05$	reject H_0
Physical Methods of Arrest	81.114	3	$>.05$	reject H_0
Interpersonal				
Communication	75.775	3	$>.05$	reject H_0
Crisis Intervention	30.884	3	$>.05$	reject H_0
Community Oriented				
Policing.	20.736	3	$>.05$	reject H_0
Category 5. Procedures for patrol				
Patrol Procedures	56.028	2	$>.05$	reject H_0
Officer Survival Techniques	118.231	2	$>.05$	reject H_0
Building Searches	52.814	2	$>.05$	reject H_0
Use of the Police Radio	53.071	3	$>.05$	reject H_0
High-Risk Vehicle Stops	53.378	2	$>.05$	reject H_0
Domestic Violence/Stalking	12.611	2	$>.05$	reject H_0
Routine or Low-Risk				
Traffic Stops	36.710	2	$>.05$	reject H_0
Category 6. Miscellaneous				
Courtroom Testimony and				
Demeanor	53.159	3	$>.05$	reject H_0
Care and Custody of				
Prisoners	44.141	3	$>.05$	reject H_0
Fingerprinting	23.309	3	$>.05$	reject H_0
Media Relations	34.189	3	$>.05$	reject H_0
Fire Safety & Use of				
Emergency Equipment	86.118	3	$>.05$	reject H_0
Supervisory/Management				
Techniques	22.055	3	$>.05$	reject H_0

APPENDIX IX

CHI-SQUARE TEST STATISTICS COMPARING TRAINING OFFICERS AND TOP

ADMINISTRATORS

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Chi-square Test Statistics Comparing Training Officers and Top Administrators

	x^2	df	p	sig.
Category 1. Legal issues				
Criminal Law	60.043	2	>.05	reject H_0
Juvenile Law	3.467	2	<.05	retain H_0*
Child & Elderly Abuse	12.261	2	>.05	reject H_0
Search and Seizure	37.356	1	>.05	reject H_0
Constitutional Law/Probable Cause	21.920	1	>.05	reject H_0
Civil Liability	1.103	2	<.05	retain H_0*
Criminal Procedures/Laws of Arrest	51.435	2	>.05	reject H_0
Traffic Law Enforcement	12.188	3	>.05	reject H_0
Category 2. Officer skills				
Use of Deadly Force	80.391	2	>.05	reject H_0
Basic Firearms	33.929	3	>.05	reject H_0
Firearms Qualification	13.886	2	>.05	reject H_0
Advanced Firearms	23.203	3	>.05	reject H_0
Less-than-Lethal Weapons	15.457	3	>.05	reject H_0
First Aid	11.971	3	>.05	reject H_0
CPR	7.250	3	>.05	reject H_0
EMT	29.293	3	>.05	reject H_0
AED	34.463	3	>.05	reject H_0
Stress Reduction Techniques	3.094	3	<.05	retain H_0*
Counter-Terrorism and WMD	10.667	3	>.05	reject H_0
Developing Sources of Information	9.399	3	>.05	reject H_0
Report Writing	19.353	3	>.05	reject H_0
Evidence Handling	12.098	2	>.05	reject H_0
Crime Scene Preservation	25.739	2	>.05	reject H_0
Crime Scene Processing	8.348	3	>.05	reject H_0
Dealing with the Mentally Ill	18.628	3	>.05	reject H_0
Emergency Vehicle Operations	35.203	3	>.05	reject H_0
Category 3. Investigations				
National Crime Information Center (NCIC)	1.377	2	>.05	retain H_0*
Crisis Intervention	13.424	3	>.05	reject H_0
Narcotics Investigations	13.862	3	>.05	reject H_0
Gangs and Cults	24.072	3	>.05	reject H_0
Criminal Investigation	24.362	2	>.05	reject H_0
Interviewing and Interrogation Techniques	33.112	2	>.05	reject H_0

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DUI Investigations	14.362	3	>.05	reject H_0
Traffic Accident Investigations	21.464	3	>.05	reject H_0

Category 4.   Community relations

Professional Ethics	57.826	3	>.05	reject H_0
Cultural Diversity	2.670	3	<.05	retain H_0*
Workplace/Sexual				
Harassment	2.367	3	<.05	retain H_0*
Blood-Borne Pathogens	3.759	3	<.05	retain H_0*
Workplace Violence	30.859	3	>.05	reject H_0
Personal Defensive Tactics	29.167	3	>.05	reject H_0
Physical Methods of Arrest	10.201	2	>.05	reject H_0
Interpersonal				
Communication	7.087	2	>.05	reject H_0
Crisis Intervention	8.732	3	>.05	reject H_0
Community Oriented				
Policing.	13.444	3	>.05	reject H_0

Category 5.   Procedures for patrol

Patrol Procedures	24.549	2	>.05	reject H_0
Officer Survival Techniques	21.920	1	>.05	reject H_0
Building Searches	24.549	2	>.05	reject H_0
Use of the Police Radio	13.601	3	>.05	reject H_0
High-Risk Vehicle Stops	22.772	2	>.05	reject H_0
Domestic Violence/Stalking	8.493	2	>.05	reject H_0
Routine or Low-Risk				
Traffic Stops	21.148	2	>.05	reject H_0

Category 6.   Miscellaneous

Courtroom Testimony and				
Demeanor	12.004	3	>.05	reject H_0
Care and Custody of				
Prisoners	10.888	3	>.05	reject H_0
Fingerprinting	8.778	3	>.05	reject H_0
Media Relations	16.957	3	>.05	reject H_0
Fire Safety & Use of				
Emergency Equipment	16.067	3	>.05	reject H_0
Supervisory/Management				
Techniques	1.707	3	<.05	retain H_0*

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APPENDIX X

CHI-SQUARE TEST STATISTICS COMPARING PATROL OFFICERS AND

TRAINING OFFICERS

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Chi-square Test Statistics Comparing Patrol Officers and Training Officers

	x^2	df	p	sig.
Category 1. Legal issues				
Criminal Law	85.504	2	>.05	reject H_0
Juvenile Law	13.042	2	>.05	reject H_0
Child & Elderly Abuse	42.327	3	>.05	reject H_0
Search and Seizure	55.453	1	>.05	reject H_0
Constitutional Law/Probable Cause	49.911	1	>.05	reject H_0
Civil Liability	22.341	3	>.05	reject H_0
Criminal Procedures/Laws of Arrest	30.661	1	>.05	reject H_0
Traffic Law Enforcement	33.973	3	>.05	reject H_0
Category 2. Officer skills				
Use of Deadly Force	58.333	1	>.05	reject H_0
Basic Firearms	56.696	2	>.05	reject H_0
Firearms Qualification	17.835	2	>.05	reject H_0
Advanced Firearms	48.714	3	>.05	reject H_0
Less-than-Lethal Weapons	73.929	3	>.05	reject H_0
First Aid	28.786	3	>.05	reject H_0
CPR	21.214	3	>.05	reject H_0
EMT	29.643	3	>.05	reject H_0
AED	17.829	3	>.05	reject H_0
Stress Reduction Techniques	27.126	3	>.05	reject H_0
Counter-Terrorism and WMD	32.500	3	>.05	reject H_0
Developing Sources of Information	38.643	3	>.05	reject H_0
Report Writing	124.071	3	>.05	reject H_0
Evidence Handling	33.768	2	>.05	reject H_0
Crime Scene Preservation	55.622	2	>.05	reject H_0
Crime Scene Processing	13.286	3	>.05	reject H_0
Dealing with the Mentally Ill	35.847	3	>.05	reject H_0
Emergency Vehicle Operations	143.214	3	>.05	reject H_0
Category 3. Investigations				
National Crime Information Center (NCIC)	24.084	3	>.05	reject H_0
Crisis Intervention	33.857	3	>.05	reject H_0
Narcotics Investigations	51.071	3	>.05	reject H_0
Gangs and Cults	45.357	3	>.05	reject H_0
Criminal Investigation	62.000	2	>.05	reject H_0
Interviewing and Interrogation Techniques	76.801	3	>.05	reject H_0

DUI Investigations	32.071	3	>.05	reject H_0
Traffic Accident Investigations	31.357	3	>.05	reject H_0

Category 4.   Community relations

Professional Ethics	35.382	2	>.05	reject H_0
Cultural Diversity	16.748	3	>.05	reject H_0
Workplace/Sexual Harassment	19.857	3	>.05	reject H_0
Blood-Borne Pathogens	47.071	3	>.05	reject H_0
Workplace Violence	10.643	3	>.05	reject H_0
Personal Defensive Tactics	40.826	2	>.05	reject H_0
Physical Methods of Arrest	81.114	3	>.05	reject H_0
Interpersonal Communication	34.783	3	>.05	reject H_0
Crisis Intervention	30.214	3	>.05	reject H_0
Community Oriented Policing.	21.216	3	>.05	reject H_0

Category 5.   Procedures for patrol

Patrol Procedures	81.018	2	>.05	reject H_0
Officer Survival Techniques	95.261	2	>.05	reject H_0
Building Searches	78.125	2	>.05	reject H_0
Use of the Police Radio	67.703	3	>.05	reject H_0
High-Risk Vehicle Stops	103.297	2	>.05	reject H_0
Domestic Violence/Stalking	38.309	2	>.05	reject H_0
Routine or Low-Risk Traffic Stops	57.946	2	>.05	reject H_0

Category 6.   Miscellaneous

Courtroom Testimony and Demeanor	61.288	3	>.05	reject H_0
Care and Custody of Prisoners	48.099	3	>.05	reject H_0
Fingerprinting	23.309	3	>.05	reject H_0
Media Relations	34.189	3	>.05	reject H_0
Fire Safety & Use of Emergency Equipment	33.927	3	>.05	reject H_0
Supervisory/Management Techniques	15.309	3	>.05	reject H_0

APPENDIX XI

RANK ORDER OF RESPONSES

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Rank Order of Responses

Overall	Patrol Officer	Training Officer	Top Administrator
Use of Deadly Force	1	1	1
Search and Seizure	2	2	2
Constitutional Law/Probable Cause	3	4	8
Officer Survival Techniques	4	3	25
Criminal Law	5	5	3
Criminal Procedures/Laws of Arrest	6	6	4
High-Risk Vehicle Stops	8	10	16
Basic Firearms	7	11	36
Interviewing and Interrogation Techniques	9	7	13
Personal Defensive Tactics	11	13	14
Patrol Procedures	12	8	24
Building Searches	14	9	15
Professional Ethics	15	14	6
Physical Methods of Arrest	10	19	23
Emergency Vehicle Operations	13	15	11
Routine or Low-Risk Traffic Stops	18	16	17
Firearms Qualification	16	17	20
Criminal Investigation	19	12	12
Crime Scene Preservation	20	17	5
Report Writing	17	22	9
Domestic Violence/Stalking	21	21	33
Evidence Handling	22	22	10
Juvenile Law	23	25	27
Interpersonal Communication	24	28	7
Use of the Police Radio	25	27	34
Less-than-Lethal Weapons	26	24	37
Advanced Firearms	28	20	44
Courtroom Testimony and Demeanor	27	29	26
Civil Liability	29	26	29
Care and Custody of Prisoners	31	32	18
Child & Elderly Abuse	30	33	28
Blood-Borne Pathogens	34	31	40
Stress Reduction Techniques	32	39	21

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Supervisory/Management Techniques	41	30	19
National Crime Information Center (NCIC)	33	35	46
Dealing with the Mentally Ill	35	44	22
Narcotics Investigations	44	34	39
Traffic Law Enforcement	38	38	34
Gangs and Cults	36	41	47
Crime Scene Processing	40	36	45
Crisis Intervention	37	46	32
Developing Sources of Information	42	37	43
Workplace/Sexual Harassment	39	42	31
Cultural Diversity	43	40	30
DUI Investigations	45	43	48
Community Oriented Policing.	46	51	36
Crisis Intervention	47	47	38
Counter-Terrorism and WMD	49	45	42
First Aid	48	48	41
CPR	51	49	55
Workplace Violence	50	54	53
Traffic Accident Investigations	52	53	54
AED	55	52	56
Fire Safety & Use of Emergency Equipment	53	50	51
Fingerprinting	54	55	49
Media Relations	56	56	50
EMT	57	57	57

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